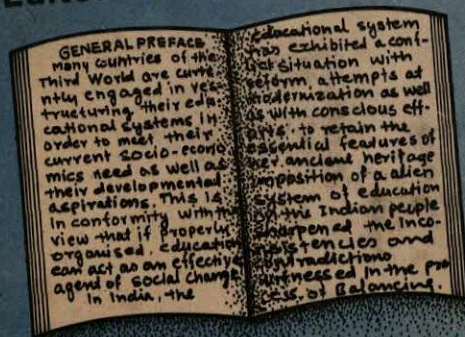


Studies in Educational Reform in India

Volume III

REFORMS TOWARDS EQUALITY AND RELEVANCE


Editor **P.R. PANCHAMUKHI**



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Volume III

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AND
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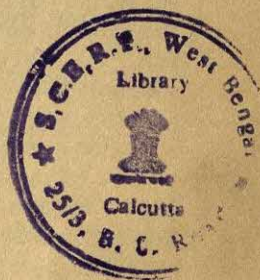
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Volume III

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**REFORMS TOWARDS EQUALITY
AND
RELEVANCES**

Editor
P.R. Panchamukhi



Indian Institute of Education, Pune



Himalaya Publishing House

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GENERAL PREFACE

Many countries of the Third World are currently engaged in restructuring their educational systems in order to meet their current socio-economic needs as well as their developmental aspirations. This is in conformity with the view that if properly organized, education can act as an effective agent of social change.

In India, the educational system has exhibited a conflict situation with reform attempts at modernization as well as with conscious efforts to retain the 'essential' features of her ancient heritage. Imposition of an alien system of education on the Indian people sharpened the inconsistencies and contradictions witnessed in the process of balancing these forces working in diverse directions. In such a situation, a need for reforms in education and the society was always felt and efforts were made to introduce them from time to time. Educational reform experiences in India over several decades of the past, present a very interesting story about the dynamics of the Indian society itself. The objective of the present series of *Studies in Educational Reform in India* is to delineate an analytical picture of the conception of a given reform, its formalization, implementation, functioning and finally its culmination in either its success or failure leading to the birth of another reform in some instances. The reforms introduced during the period from 1921 (i.e. after the introduction of Dyarchy) to 1980, and touching almost all the major aspects of education are subjected to incisive analysis in these studies. Basic questions are raised here about the potential of education as a change agent, the interdependence of the socio-economic structure and the reform process and the inevitable complementarity of the conflicts and continuity perceptions about educational change.

The series is divided into five volumes consisting of thirty-three case studies of different educational reforms. The first volume entitled *Perspectives for Educational Reform in India*, presents a socio-economic and political backdrop for the educational reforms attempted during the period 1921-80. The second volume, *Educational Reforms at Different Levels*, consists of twelve case studies of different types of reform tried in different regions of the country during this period. Fourteen case studies are included in the third volume *Reforms Towards Equality and Relevance*. The case studies in this volume discuss reforms to tackle various facets of educational inequality. Also, some case studies analyse the attempts to make education more meaningful and relevant to the needs of the society. The fourth volume in the series consists of the case studies relating to the Medium of Instruction and the Examination Reform at different levels. The fifth volume *Economics of Educational Finances*,

examines the crucial problems of educational finances which is the instrumentality of reform implementation.

Written by eminent scholars in the field, the contributions to this series can be considered to be pioneering attempts at analysing the dynamics of educational reforms in one of the leading Third World countries. These contributions not only provide insights into the working of a given reform in a particular socio-economic and political context but they also highlight the pre-conditions for the success and causes for the failure of the reform. In this sense, the studies would be of great interest to policy-makers in the Third World countries and also to researchers in the field of educational innovations.

This research project was conceived and formulated by the late Shri J.P. Naik. Till his passing away in 1981, he also guided the progress of this study. Alas, he does not live today to see the successful completion of the study which he so meticulously designed and guided. The Indian Institute of Education remembers with great respect, the contribution of this visionary in the field of social science research.

The project was sponsored and financed by the International Development Research Centre, Canada. The I.D.R.C. has also funded the publication of this series of studies. The Indian Institute of Education wishes to place on record its very sincere thanks to I.D.R.C. for this assistance. I wish to express my special gratitude to Dr. Kenneth King, the then Associate Director, I.D.R.C., for encouraging the Institute to initiate this project. My special thanks are also due to Dr. H. Dean Nielsen, Programme Officer, Social Sciences Division, I.D.R.C. whose sympathies and encouragement enabled the Institute to continue and complete the project despite the two tragic losses in 1981 and 1983 that the Institute had to suffer in the passing away of Shri J.P. Naik and Dr. A.R. Kamat. Originally, it was these two scholars who were to see the project through. Subsequently, the Institute placed the project under the guidance and care of a Committee of Direction headed by Prof. M.S. Gore, who was assisted by Prof. S. Shukla, Prof. C.T. Kurien, Dr. Chitra Naik and Prof. M.P. Rege. But for the organizational steps taken by the Committee of Direction, the project could not have progressed systematically. I express my sincere thanks to all the members of the Committee of Direction.

Apart from its thematic importance, this research project is unique in another sense. It has brought together a large number of eminent Indian social scientists and educationists to present their views on different educational reforms in India. I wish to place on record my special gratitude to the contributors to this series whose names have been listed on the next page. To my colleagues in the Indian Institute of Education, I express my appreciation and thanks for their help and cooperation at different stages of the Project. I particularly like to mention the help given by Dr. S.B. Gogate and Dr. M.H. Pimpalkhare.

The Himalaya Publishing House, Bombay deserve my special thanks for doing a neat job of bringing out this series within a short time. My

thanks are due to Shri D.P. Pandey, Himalaya Publishing House for this excellent production.

It is an interesting coincidence that all our efforts in the past five years have culminated into this publication on educational reforms at a time when the country is planning several reforms in the current educational system and when a political will appears to have risen to implement the reforms. It is hoped that this series of studies would be helpful in our national effort towards planning for a new educational system.

Indian Institute of
Education, Pune

P.R. Panchamukhi
Director.

Studies in Educational Reform in India (Volume I to V)

Volume I

Perspectives for Educational Reform in India—A.R. Kamat

Volume II

Educational Reforms at Different Levels

Part I: School Education Reforms

1. Basic Education:
A Case Study
—*Salamatullah*
2. Curricular Reforms at School Stages in U.P.:
A Case Study
—*S.B. Adaval*
3. Primary Education in Metropolitan Cities:
A Case Study
—*Radha Rani Sharma*
4. Primary Education under Panchayati Raj:
A Case Study
—*L.K. Oad*
5. Disparities in Elementary Education:
A Case Study of Bihar
—*Sachchidananda*
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—*P.R. Gopinathan Nair*
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—*Poromesh Acharya*
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—*Poromesh Acharya*

Part II: Institutional Innovation

9. Central Board of Secondary Education
—*P.D. Shukla*

Part III: Higher Education and Research

10. Regional Universities:
A Case Study of Poona University
—M.H. Pimpalkhare
11. Pursuit of Excellence in Higher Education
—S. Shukla
12. NIEPA: Instrumentality of Change
—G.D. Sharma

Volume III

Reforms Towards Equality and Relevance

Part I: Equality

1. Women's Education in India, 1921-1981
—Karuna Ahmed
2. A Struggle for Identity Retention—
A Case Study of S.N.D.T. Women's University
—Neera Desai & Kamilini Bhansali
3. Concessions and Incentives to Educational Institutes for S.C. Students
of School Stage in Rajasthan
—R.C. Sharma
4. A Century of Tribal Education in Gujarat
—Vidyut Joshi
5. Social Education as an Aspect of Community Development:
An Analysis
—S.P. Jain
6. Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad: A Movement for Mass Education
—M.P. Parameswaran
7. Rural Institute as an Educational Reform:
A Case Study of Lok Bharati and Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth
—M.B. Buch

Part II: Making Education Relevant

8. Technical Education in India: Development of Technical Education in
India (1921-1980)
—Biman Sen
9. Physical Education in India
—V.D. Bapat
10. Agricultural Universities in India
—N.L. Bhale

11. Educational Reforms in Teacher Education in the State of Maharashtra (1921-1980)
—S.P. Karandikar
12. Implementation of the 10 + 2 + 3 Pattern of Education in Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka and Maharashtra States.
—S.B. Gogate
13. The 10 + 2 + 3 Pattern of Education of National Level
—R.P. Singhal
14. A Study of National Service Scheme as an Educational Reform
—L.R. Shah

Volume IV

Medium of Instruction and the Examination Reform at Different Levels

1. Medium of Instruction in Tamil Nadu
—L.S. Saraswathi
2. Examination Reforms at the School Stage (1947-80)
—V. Natarajan
3. Examination Reforms in the Central Board of Secondary Education (1947-80)
—V. Natarajan
4. A Critical Study of Malpractices in School Examinations
—V. Natarajan
5. Examination Reform in India Universities
—V. Natarajan

Volume V

Economics of Educational Finance —P.R. Panchamukhi

PREFACE TO VOLUME III

This volume, third in the five-volume series of Studies in Educational Reform in India, intends to examine some of the major educational reforms introduced during 1921-80 which appeared to have a well-specified purpose. In order that education is a useful agent for socio-economic transformation of the society it ought to be made more relevant to the socio-economic requirements of the individual and of the society. The volume has compiled some of the significant studies relating to such reforms. It also consists of the studies of those reforms which aim at making education more egalitarian and also for using it as a device for bringing about a more egalitarian socio-economic order.

India with her hoary past and well-entrenched socio-economic institutions presents a picture of a society with several internal contradictions. On the one hand, her socio-economic institutions aim at developing a highly disciplined and meritocratic society which at one time she was. On the other hand, the exploitative character of the functioning of her socio-economic institutions creates injustice and discontent among the people. The precept and practice are at variance in respect of many aspects of our socio-economic life. For example, women are given an exalted place in the value system, but their educational condition and socio-economic status are, in practice, highly deplorable. Fellow-feeling and equitable treatment of all are given an important place in the code of conduct of the people. However, in practice, the gap between the advanced communities and the backward communities has continued to widen, making the latter live in conditions of extreme deprivation and disgrace. In such a society of internal contradictions, can education be used as a useful instrument for bringing about socio-economic equality and justice? Education itself needs to be 'equitably' distributed. Equal treatment of equals in an unequal society would lead to multiplication of inequality. Properly graded unequal treatment of unequals should provide useful countervailing correctives for such problems of the society. The Indian educational scene during the period 1920-80 presents a picture of deliberate policy-making and effort in this direction. In the present volume, only few of such policies and efforts have been considered for detailed examination.

Volume III is divided into two parts. Part I consists of seven case studies of educational reforms for the purpose of equality, both educational equality and socio-economic equality. Part II of the volume also consists of

seven case studies and they focus their attention on the efforts towards making education relevant to the socio-economic needs of the people and of the ideal educational system.

A study of the development of women's education in general and a case study of SNDT Women's University bring out clearly that there is still a long way to go so far as inter-gender equality in education and through this in socio-economic status are concerned. The studies highlight the socio-economic pressures operating on women's education. The two papers dealing with special policy measures to help education of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes suggest that while special measures to help S.C. and S.T. people are necessary, their success totally depends upon how and with what sincerity a simultaneous effort to transform society and education are undertaken. A study on social education looks upon education in an integrated framework of the entire community development and suggests that formal education and social education need to be mutually complementary, which they are not at present. A case study of the science movement for masses in Kerala also highlights a success story of the movement and also hurdles in its progress. Though not a typical educational reform, it has many significant educational aspects so far as mass awareness and development are concerned. The rural institutes were started in the country to tackle inter-regional inequality in educational development. A case study on two rural institutions — one in Gujarat and another in Maharashtra — brings out the various aspects of the development of this reform, highlighting in particular the difficulties faced by such an institutional innovation for the purpose of inter-regional equality.

For the purpose of an overall development of the personality of the individual and for his socio-economic development and also for the development of different sectors of the economy, a number of educational reforms were introduced in India during the period under consideration. These reforms attempted to make education more relevant, functional and meaningful. If technical education is one type of response to the industrial revolution and technological change in the world, physical educational reform is another type of response. The former caters to the skill-needs of the individual and the economy due to the fast-changing industrial and technological scene; the latter attempts to counter the adverse effects of industrial change on the physiological capacities and functions of the individual and the society. The first two case studies examine different aspects of development of technical and physical education in India. In the course of industrial transformation of the country, special efforts were also initiated to transform the predominant sector of agriculture. The reform of agricultural universities was intended to gear the educational system to the needs of this transformation in agriculture. A case study of agricultural universities in India shows that

though the educational aspects of the reform were well-conceived, the absence of proper linkages of the agricultural universities with the village and the 'situational, infrastructural, economic, social and cultural impediments' diluted the effectiveness of the reform. The students from the agricultural universities who were restrained from taking to farming themselves due to such impediments could not provide the intended leadership in agricultural transformation.

A case study of reforms in teacher education in one of the educationally progressive states of India shows that the reforms were essentially government conceived, and the teacher educators' lethargy and indifference to the reforms are a cause for concern.

Two studies on the recently introduced reform relating to the educational structure—popularly known as 10 + 2 + 3 pattern—are included in the volume. The studies highlight on the basis of an all-India experience and an intensive examination of the four state experiences that unless suitable curriculum renewal and reorganization of other related aspects of education are undertaken, a mere 10+2+3 structural change in the duration of different levels cannot make education more relevant. The half-hearted changes conceived as concomitants of 10+2+3 reform in respect of vocationalization, the location of + 2 stage, employment opportunities, teacher guidance and training, etc. have been highlighted as the aspects deserving urgent attention.

It is unfortunate that the process of education takes the student away from the masses. With the higher education in particular, this compartmentalization is complete. The National Service Scheme (NSS) intending to bridge the gap between the 'gown and the town' can indeed be conceived as a major reform to change the attitudes of the educated youth. A case study of the NSS traces the growth of this reform and highlights the measures needed to integrate this with the formal education process. Since the youth response for NSS is quite encouraging, the practical issues raised in this connection deserve serious consideration.

The present volume cannot claim to be covering all the 'equity and relevance' reforms pertaining to education in India. Nor can it claim to present a 'complete' and a 'final' analysis of the reforms chosen for the study. The case studies of the selected reforms, however, show that there has been a continuous struggle to introduce changes in education in India in order to make it more egalitarian and relevant. The varying degree of success of the reforms only suggests that the solution for the ills of education lies mostly outside education and in order to make the educational reforms effective, a simultaneous reforming of the other

sectors is extremely important. This does not belittle the importance of the reform attempts relating to education, but it certainly highlights the need to widen the scope of the reform attempts.

The authors of the various case studies published in this volume deserve the thanks of the Indian Institute of Education for their meticulous and objective analysis of different educational reforms. Their efforts would be amply rewarded if the case studies inspire further research in this field.

P.R. Panchamukhi

*Director,
Indian Institute of Education,
Pune, 411 029.*

CONTENTS

Part I

Equality

1. Women's Education in India, 1921-81 3
— *Karuna Ahmed*
2. A Struggle for Identity Retention — A Case Study
of S.N.D.T. Women's University 41
— *Neera Desai*
— *Kamlini Bhansali*
3. Concessions and Incentives to Educational Institutes
for S.C. Students at School Stage in Rajasthan 67
— *R.C. Sharma*
4. A Century of Tribal Education in Gujarat 75
— *Vidyut Joshi*
5. Social Education as an Aspect of Community
Development : An Analysis 97
— *S.P. Jain*
6. Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad : A Movement for
Mass Education 135
— *M.P. Parameswaran*
7. Rural Institute as an Educational Reform: A Case
Study of Lok Bharati and Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth 152
— *M.B. Buch*

Part II**Making Education Relevant**

| | |
|---|-----|
| 8. Technical Education in India: Development of Technical Education of India (1921 — 1980) — <i>Biman Sen</i> | 187 |
| 9. Physical Education in India — <i>V.D. Bapat</i> | 212 |
| 10. Agricultural Universities in India — <i>N.L. Bhale</i> | 314 |
| 11. Educational Reforms in Teacher Education in the State of Maharashtra (1921 — 1980) — <i>S.P. Karandikar</i> | 334 |
| 12. Implementation of the 10+2+3 Pattern of Education in Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka & Maharashtra States. — <i>S.B. Gogate</i> | 377 |
| 13. The 10+2+3 Pattern of Education at National Level — <i>R.P. Singhal</i> | 414 |
| 14. A Study of National Service Scheme as an Educational Reform — <i>L.R. Shah</i> | 450 |
| Subject Index | 485 |
| Name Index | 493 |

Part One
Equality

Women's Education in India, 1921-81

*Karuna Ahmed**

This paper discusses women's education in India during the period 1921-81. Its purpose is not to trace the history of women's education as such or to detail its growth and expansion, though both are dealt with to some extent, but rather to focus on certain key issues that have emerged on the subject. Essentially, our objective would be to identify some of these issues through a survey of the large body of literature and official documents that have appeared on the status and education of women since the turn of the century and to show how they were perceived over a span of these sixty years.

Any attempt to deal with the issues relating to women's education is likely to be unrewarding unless these are viewed in their social context. Neither the goals of women's education nor the issues relating to it can be properly understood except within the societal context. For example, most of the key issues and problems articulated during the period reflect on women's role in society and actually derive from it. Emphasis on a relevant curriculum which characterizes the writings on women's education during the pre-independence period (as well as recently) is directly linked to the conception of women's role as housewives and mothers. Again, wastage in girls' education often discussed in extant literature similarly derives from this same conception. Education was intended to train boy students for jobs. Since girls were not expected to work outside the home, any education that did not train them for the role of housewife and mother was viewed as wastage. Education for girls was thus sought to be moulded along the requirements of their traditional role expectations so as to reduce wastage. Therefore, the problems and issues relating to women's education will be discussed here within the societal context and the position accorded to women within the society.

While we are concerned with women who have been exposed to western education at all levels during 1921-81, we still have to take care of one more aspect. The issues and problems relating to women's education

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are many. Which ones are we going to focus on and why? We shall be dealing with four of them, namely, curricular change, regional variation, differential response by religious community and co-education, although some of these are common to boys as well, as for example, differential spread by region and religion. However, their manifestation is more imbalanced among girls and has a special bearing on women's education. These will be discussed in two parts—the pre- and post-independence period. We shall also try to substantiate our argument that these problems and their manifestations were governed by the social role of women and that the issues were coloured by social context.

In other words, our choice is governed by the fact that we are not interested in statistical growth and expansion *per se* but in providing a sociological explanation to the growth (or lack of it) and expansion of women's education and the framework governing it. For instance, why did girls' education make more progress in Madras and Bombay? Is it because of early start (which was true of Bengal Presidency as well) or because of social factors like the absence of purdah and prejudice against educating women? Was early marriage responsible for slow expansion of girls' education?

The study is confined to the period before independence to what was British India. The reasons for this are two-fold. First, the official policy of the British Government applied to the whole of British India whereas the princely states were affected by the policies of individual rulers. Second, social legislation as a response to revivalist and reformist movements was, by and large, confined to British India (notable exceptions among the Indian princely states being Baroda, Mysore and Travancore).

Debate Over Women's Education

Even though the social position and education of women had attracted the attention of social reformers earlier, debate over the question acquired a particular intensity around the end of the nineteenth century. The spate of books and tracts reflecting on the status of Indian women and the need for educating them towards the end of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century offers conclusive evidence of this.¹ These books and tracts touched upon various aspects of women's lives in India, but they all seemed to agree on one point, namely, the need for resurgence of Indian society and radical changes in the position of women. They invariably referred to movements for social reform, changes in women's lives and the significance of education for women.

Education of women had definitely come to be a public issue by the early 1920's, opposition to it notwithstanding. The slogan of Indian leaders and social reformers by this time had come to be : Educating a girl means educating a family (Rajagopal, 1936 : 199).² This had become possible because the 1920's were a period of immense social and political awakening

in India followed by intense reformist efforts made by social reformers with or without organized support. Thus, the issue of women's status, which had long become the focus of social reform, was also reflected in a series of legal enactments relating to or affecting women.

Education had become a transferred subject under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms in 1919. Thereafter Dyarchy was introduced in 1921 and education came under dual charge. This permitted greater Indian initiative in educational policy and facilitated its implementation. The British Government had also gradually changed its position vis-a-vis women's education and was willing by that time to lend open support.³ The Hartog Committee (1929) argued :

We believe that difficulties in the way of women's education are beginning to lose their force and the opportunity has arrived for a great new advance. We are definitely of the opinion that priority should be given to the claims of girls' education in every scheme of examination.⁴

Emergence of a class of educated women by this time was an additional factor for the concern with the current position of women and the need for educating them. As women received education they became conscious of their problems and social status and sought amelioration of their situation.

Women in India, through educational and other associations and through managing and advisory bodies, are now taking a very real part in the endeavour which is being made on all sides to bring the education of girls in India upto at least the level which has been reached in the education of boys ... the public demand for the education of girls and of women is organized and vocal. This demand is being made not only by the women themselves but also by some enlightened men of the country (Littlehailes, 1928;7).

Moreover, during this period Gandhi and Besant too supported women's cause by opposing purdah, prostitution, and by supporting widow remarriage and on etc. Gandhi also stressed the need for educating women. His call to women to join the political movement brought women out of their homes in large numbers from all parts of India and from varied backgrounds. The impression that had gained currency all over India was that Gandhi was not only a social reformer but a reformer who had a special message for women. Clearly, thus, women's education and amelioration had received a great deal of impetus by the third decade of the twentieth century.

Agents of Women's Education

The three main agents of women's, as of men's education, in British India were the missionaries, the Indian social reformers who worked either

through associations or independently and philanthropic foreigners (mainly British) interested in the cause of women, and the British Government. Women's education was promoted in the initial stages by the missionaries (Murdoch, 1888 : 19-54). They made their contribution by opening day schools and zenana schools as early as the nineteenth century. Later on, some Britishers and other foreigners and Indian social reformers also joined and made significant contributions. Among the Britishers and foreigners, one may mention, Bethune, Professors Patton, David Hare, Margaret Cousins, Mary Carpenter and Annie Besant. The noteworthy Indian social reformers and revivalists were : Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Ishwara Chandra Vidyasagar, Keshabchandra Sen, Mahatma Phule, Maharishi Karve, M.G. Ranade, Dayanad Saraswati, Vivekanand, and Gandhi. The Indians worked either through voluntary organizations or independently but most of their work was organized through voluntary organizations. Therefore, the role of voluntary associations was very crucial in spreading education of girls in the pre-independence period.

What motivated the missionaries, Indian social reformers and the government to press for the education of women? What advantages did they perceive in educating women and what objectives prompted them to undertake it? A persual of the literature suggests that the objectives or goals of women's education were formulated at that early stage within the context of their social role.

If we were to look upon women's education from the societal viewpoint and relate it to the motivation of those who introduced it, the demand for women's education arose as a concomitant of social reform movement. As has already been noted the social reformers reasoned that reform in the social position of women would reform society. They viewed women as being an integral part of family and society. It was for this reason that, while they propagated the cause of women's education, they also promoted the idea of traditional role reinforcement through school curriculae.

Another objective of the social reformers and thinkers in the pre-independence period was to meet the challenge posed by Christian missionaries who were proselytizing while imparting education. Although the Christian missionaries were concerned about the moral and intellectual uplift of Indians, their main aim in educating girls, as of all Indians, was to proselytize. Therefore, the response of Indians to these schools, although enthusiastic in the initial stages, became lukewarm. With the passing of time, Indians became suspicious of their aims, and were afraid that their daughters may be so influenced as to want to convert to Christianity.⁵

The reformist and revivalist sects like the Brahmo Samaj and the Arya Samaj intensified their efforts at promoting education for girls. Voluntary social welfare organisations like Seva Sadan Society, the Arya Samaj, Dev Samaj, the Prarthana Samaj and the Khalsa Diwan did valuable work in

creating favourable public opinion. This helped in changing the views of parents towards the education of their daughters. Various Mohammadan Educational Associations and Hindu Associations and backward and depressed classes associations had become active in the field of education by 1920's (Littlehales, 1928 : 7).

Again, the fact that educated men came to prefer educated girls as brides further reinforced this concept of education and motivated their parents to send their daughters to school. Therefore, schools run by voluntary organizations like the Seva Sadan at Poona imparted music lessons, home science, first-aid, nursing, midwifery, etc. apart from the teaching of languages to girls. The main idea was that since a girl had to be a wife and a mother, school education should train her to perform that role more effectively.

After the attainment of independence in 1947, women's education received a fresh impetus. The cautious policy adopted by the British was replaced by one of positive and assertive propagation of women's education. Actually the wave of liberalism which had spearheaded the promotion of education during the struggle for independence was now incorporated in the official policy and steps were initiated for improvement of women's education. A number of commissions and committees were appointed to look into the various aspects of women's education and to make recommendations for its improvement and expansion.

The first committee appointed by the Government of India was the National Committee on Women's Education under the chairmanship of Smt. Durgabai Deshmukh. Appointed in 1958, it covered almost all aspects of women's education except higher education which was left out of its purview. The committee submitted its report in 1959. It emphasized the need for special care and support to women's education within the prevailing socio-cultural environment. It criticized the Sargent Report for making a well-meaning but unrealistic suggestion that women's education should not be treated as a special problem.

Its main conclusion was that the education of girls and women had been sadly neglected in the past and consequently there was a wide disparity in the education of men and women and boys and girls at all levels and stages of education (India, 1959 : 1).

Soon after the report was submitted the government appointed a National Council for Women's Education as an advisory body. Its task was to suggest to the government programmes and policies for the growth and expansion of girls' education. Subsequently, a unit was also set up in the Ministry of Education (later shifted to Ministry of Social Welfare) to deal with issues arising out of the programmes formulated for promoting girls' and women's education and to expedite action.

Even though the post-independence period represents a remarkable continuity with the previous period in respect of the concern for promotion of women's education, it also brought with it a new conception of the goals or objectives of women's education. Education of women was no longer seen exclusively as an instrument for inculcating values, appropriate to women's role in society as had indeed been the case earlier.

It was now seen as a means of providing equality of opportunity to women. In fact, equality of men and women in all walks of life was accepted by the Indian national leaders and the constitution makers. This emerged as a salient view in the forties and was incorporated in the Constitution. This has been the dominant conception since independence. Social justice came to be linked with equal opportunities since the latter would be a means to achieving the former. Therefore, all weaker sections of society were to be given equal opportunities regardless of their religion, sex, caste etc. In this scheme of things, education came to acquire a central place as a means to improved socio-economic status.

One other conception of women's education that has been propagated more recently emphasizes 'the need of the development of human resources in the development process' (Mies, 1981 : 132). This view along with the second one is not only recent but has largely been conceived under the influence of the western thinking on the contribution of women to society, and the impact of the feminist movement in the West. This is being put forward by some in India although they are in a minority.⁶ According to this view, the development of society is dependent upon the development of women, who are an integral part of society. Some of the assumptions of this approach are that since men and women are equal, there should be no discrimination on the basis of sex. Further, the development-oriented programmes have so far presumed that men were crucial and have, therefore, ignored women. This has caused setbacks to development-oriented programmes. These programmes should be redesigned with a focus on women, whenever necessary. The stress is on removing the male-oriented bias on development.

Women as a Category

Now the question here is : Is there an Indian woman or can one talk of Indian women? Women are characterized by several variables, namely, region, religion, caste, rural-urban residence etc. and are a category only in the heuristic sense. Each of these variables overlaps, in turn, with a different culture. Again, tribal women differ from non-tribal women in many ways although there is immense diversity among the tribal women (Shashi, 1978 : Indian Anthropological Society, 1978). Thus, generalizations about women seem to be over-simplification of facts. Nevertheless, the difficulty to generalize about Indian women "is lessened by the invisible thread of value-

orientation provided by the country's classical traditions, which make the identification of a broad all-India pattern possible.' (Dube, 1963 : 175).

Therefore even though we are aware that a disaggregated analysis will give a different view it is imperative for our purpose to draw a general picture of Indian women. For example, there is no doubt that during the British period they were denied access to education and they suffered from several social handicaps, namely, sati, purdah, child marriage, ban on widow remarriage, etc. This is inspite of the exalted position enjoyed by women as mothers.

By the end of the eighteenth century the sphere of life of the average woman was restricted to her home and her social status was one of subjection with a few exceptions ... (Illustrious women who, inspite of such adverse social conditions made their mark as statesmen, rulers, soldiers or saints, appeared in all parts of the country from time to time and were honoured by men and women alike). But even such exceptions do not reduce the gloom of the general picture of the subjection of women who were denied opportunities for education. (India, 1959, 1960 : 13).

Growth and Expansion of Women's Education

Education was generally in a most unsatisfactory state in early nineteenth century. This backwardness characterized all education, but the state of girls' education was much worse. Some idea of this is provided by the Wood's Despatch of 1854 and the official surveys of indigenous education carried out in different parts of the country. This backwardness was somewhat made up by the interest taken in the expansion of education by missionary societies, Indian leaders and social reformers, but any real expansion of education, including women's education, had to wait until education passed on into the charge of Indian Ministers.

Several trends are discernible from the statistics relating to women's education during this period. These may be summarized as follows :

(a) First, there was an increase in the number of institutions from 1921-22 until 1936-37 but this number declined thereafter, though the number of such institutions goes up again in 1946-47. This should not be taken to mean that there was an actual sliding down of women's education. The explanation for this decline probably lies in the fact that during this period many inefficient institutions (mostly primary schools) were closed down while many more girls were studying in co-educational institutions than had been the case earlier.

Table 1
Number of Institutions for Girls
(All Types)

| | |
|---------|--------|
| 1921-22 | 23,517 |
| 1926-27 | 27,756 |
| 1931-32 | 33,969 |
| 1936-37 | 33,989 |
| 1939-40 | 34,564 |
| 1946-47 | 28,196 |

Sources : (1) Sargent, 1932-37, Table 70, p. 149.

(2) Sargent, 1937-47, Vol. 2 Table 70, p. 355.

Notes : (a) The lowest number of institutions (26,142) reaches in 1944-45.

(b) Figures for 1941-42 are not given by Sargent.

(b) The number of girls enrolled in various institutions increased steadily (Table 2). This increase occurred despite a decline in the number of institutions for girls.

Table 2
Number of Pupils by Sex in All Institutions

| Year | Boys | Girls |
|------|-------------|-----------|
| 1922 | 69,62,928 | 14,24,422 |
| 1927 | 93,15,144 | 18,42,352 |
| 1932 | 1,02,73,888 | 24,92,649 |
| 1937 | 1,10,07,683 | 31,38,357 |
| 1942 | 1,22,66,311 | 37,26,876 |
| 1947 | 1,39,48,979 | 42,97,785 |

Sources : (a) Sargent, 1932-37, Vol. 1, Table 70, p. 149.

(b) Sargent, 1937-47, Vol. 2, Tables 6, 71, pp. 26, 356.

(c) This is confirmed by figures on enrolment in co-educational institutions. The enrolment of girls in co-educational institutions rose steadily, rising from 35 per cent in 1921-22 to 54.6 per cent in 1946-47.⁷ Proportionately more girls were studying in co-educational colleges than at secondary school level, presumably because the number of girls' colleges was not particularly large. For instance, in 1946-47 while 9,042 girls were enrolled in girls' colleges of Art, 11,262 were in boys' colleges. While, out of a total of 2,80,772 girls enrolled in high schools, 2,22,574 were studying in girls' schools.⁸ At primary level the number of girls enrolled in co-educational schools was higher (19,80,393) than those studying in girls' schools (14,94,772). On the other hand their enrolment in special, technical and vocational schools was higher in separate schools (41,638) than in co-educational institutions (17,355).⁹

(d) Nearly 50 per cent of the schools for girls were private institutions, aided or unaided.

Certain broad conclusions emerge from these trends about women's education. For one thing, it is clear that women's education made a headstart during this period.

Table 3
Institutions of Girls by Management

| Year | Gout. | Dist. Board | Munici- pal Board | Private Aided | Un- aided | Total re- cognized Institu- tions | Unrecog- nized Institu- tions |
|---------|-------|----------------|-------------------------|------------------|--------------|--|--|
| 1937-38 | 754 | 6,878 | 2,065 | 19,458 | 3,720 | 32,875 | 3,999 |
| 1946-47 | 908 | 7,856 | 2,453 | 11,863 | 1,772 | 24,852 | 3,344 |

Source : Sargent, 1937-47, Vol. 2, Table 70, pp. 352-54.

Starting from nothing women came to receive education in large numbers and were taking to careers in many cases. This development was confined to urban areas because women's education was very considerably in private hands and the activities of private organizations were restricted to urban areas. Lack of resources inhibited the government from taking it to the rural areas. It was only after Gandhi's call for universal primary education that social activity spread to rural areas.

Second, while women's education registered a definite expansion, this still left them way behind boys. For every 100 boys there were only 30 girls in schools, 7 in colleges of professional education and 12 in the colleges of general education.

Finally, private education contributed greatly to the expansion of women's education until independence. Major initiative in women's education came from Indians, though their efforts too were often hampered by the shortcomings of the grant-in-aid system, the mainstay of private initiative in education.

The trends of the pre-independence period continued to be reflected in the post-independence period in spite of the fact that the attainment of independence marked a watershed in the history of women's education in India. The wave of liberalism that spearheaded the national movement and culminated in the achievement of freedom underscored the importance of improvement in the position of women. The idea of treating women as equal and providing social justice was reflected in the Constitution which guaranteed equality to everyone irrespective of caste, sex or religion. Therefore, the cautious policy of the British Government was replaced by one of positive and assertive position *vis-a-vis* women's education.

As a result, women's education expanded fairly rapidly in the post-independence period. The rate of female literacy which was 1.8 in 1921

and 7.9 in 1951 increased to 24.8 in 1981. The corresponding figures for men were 25.0 in 1951 and 46.7 per cent in 1981. The enrolment of girls was nearly 342 lakhs and they constituted 35.4 per cent of the total enrolment in 1977-78. The number of institutions has increased from 16,951 in 1946-47 and 24,829 in 1950-51 to 53,356 in 1977-78. However, the proportion of institutions for girls to the total number of institutions has declined from 10.3 per cent in 1946-47 to 8.0 per cent in 1977-78.

The percentage of girls' enrolment to the population of corresponding age group in the same year was 62.6 (6-11 years), 24.4 (11-14 years), 11.0 (14-17 years) and 2.4 (17-23 years) per cent. The corresponding figures for boys were 97.4, 48.6, 25.2 and 5.8 per cent.

At the collegiate stage, their proportion rose from nearly one-tenth in 1950-51 to 27.9 in 1977-78. However, the enrolment of women continues to differ according to faculties and types of institutions. Again women seem to be concentrated in a few faculties while men are more evenly distributed across faculties. In 1975-76, 84.7 per cent women were enrolled in arts and science. Women have been more likely to enrol in education and medicine than in other faculties. On the other hand, the likelihood of their enrolling in the faculties of engineering, technology, agriculture and veterinary science continues to be very minimal. The faculties which have registered a decline are science (from 25.7 per cent in 1970-71 to 18.7 per cent in 1975-76) and medicine. In medicine there has been a steady decline in their enrolment since 1950-51 when their percentage distribution was 5.8 per cent. It stood at 3.2 per cent in 1975-76 (Ahmad, 1979; 36,45).

Thus, there is a strong tendency for them to cluster in a few faculties as teachers and as students. The tendency for their representation to decline as one moves from a lower to a higher level is also typical of them as students and as teachers.

The gap between the education of boys and girls is wider in rural areas than in the urban areas and therefore the rural women are more disadvantaged than their counterparts. The female literacy rate in the rural areas in 1981 was 17.99 while it was 40.6 for males. The Committee on the Status of Women worked out the comparative figures of enrolment for boys and girls in the rural and urban areas which are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Rural and Urban Differentiation in Boys' and Girls' Enrolment

| Area | % age of boys to total enrolment | % age of girls to total enrolment |
|-------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Rural | 83.42 | 16.58 |
| Urban | 74.31 | 28.69 |
| Total | 76.64 | 23.36 |

It also notes with concern the higher rate of dropout among girls since the problem seemed to persist and ultimately tended to affect the overall progress of women's education. This was also highlighted by the Deshmukh Committee which found that the all-India average of dropouts in 1956-57 at the primary level was 74 per cent for girls and 62.4 per cent for boys while in 1966 it was 62 per cent for girls and 56 per cent for boys. The Education Commission pointed out that about two-thirds of this wastage occurred in Class I.

Various factors have been identified as being responsible for this high rate of dropout among girls. Notable among these are : early marriage and betrothal and parental apathy. This problem eventually affects the development of women's education and also slows down the process of narrowing the gap between the education of boys and girls. Therefore, we find that inspite of an increase in the enrolment of girls and expansion of education at all levels, there are many lacunae. For instance, while the number of institutions for girls has gone up, their proportion to the total has not. Again, the gap between the education of boys and girls is nowhere disappearing.

Regional Variation

Choksi (1929 : 64) mentions that as early as 1883 eight girls had matriculated from Bombay University. In 1886, a Parsi gentleman admitted his daughters to Wilson College. Madras Medical College admitted the first girl in 1878. In 1927, there were 550 girls in arts and 140 in medical courses in Madras while in Bombay there were 450 students in different colleges affiliated to Bombay University.

We shall now focus on those provinces which were fairly advanced in women's education. Among the British provinces Madras and then Bombay stand out (Sen, 1938 : 103-4; Mayhew, 1926 : 98; Sarobji, n.d. : 19) in terms of enrolment of girls in all institutions, expenditure by the Government on girls' education, the proportion of trained to untrained teachers, the highest enrolment in co-educational institutions and in the number of government run institutions.¹⁰ The Report on the Progress of Education in India, 1927-32 mentions that Madras has long been a pioneer in girls' education. We shall now present statistics to substantiate the claim of Madras as being foremost in girls' education, particularly in so far as the contribution of the government is concerned. Bombay is a close second and sometimes even stands first.

We shall also refer to some of the backward provinces like Punjab, U.P., Bihar and Orissa and NWFP. The purpose is to show that some parts of India did better than certain others. We will also try to infer and explain, wherever possible, the reasons of advance and progress in one region than in the other.

In 1946-47, there were 256 institutions for girls run by the government, district and municipal boards and 7,010 private institutions in Bengal. On the other hand, Madras had 2,758 institutions in the former category and 4,547 in the latter. Thus, Madras had the highest number of government run institutions and second highest number of private institutions for girls (See Table A in Appendix). Bengal, on the other hand, had the largest number of institutions in the public and private sector.

Looking at the enrolment figures, we find that Madras has the highest enrolment and also continues to retain its lead during 1922-1947 (See Table B in Appendix). For example, the enrolment of girls in all institutions in the Madras Presidency increases from 370,966 in 1921-22 to 14,35,617 in 1946-47. The enrolment of girls in Bombay presidency was 581,333 in 1946-47, less than half of the enrolment in Madras. Yet it is second in terms of enrolment of girls.

There is variation in terms of percentage of increase in enrolment during 1927-47. For instance, it varies from 38.1 per cent in Bihar to 307.0 per cent in NWFP. Looking at the number of girls enrolled in NWFP, we find that there were only 7,905 students in 1927 and this number increased to 32,171 in 1947, an increase of nearly 300 per cent. Yet in terms of numbers the enrolment of girls continues to be very low in this province. Punjab records the maximum increase of 187.0 per cent during 1927-47.

In spite of highest enrolment, the rate of retention at the primary level was very low in Madras in the beginning. For instance, of every 100 girls who joined class I in 1922-23, only 16 reached class IV (in 1925-26) in Madras while 31 did so in Bombay and 16 in Punjab. However, this situation changes and Madras gains a lead by 1946-47. The retention rate during that year was 36 per cent for Madras, 34 per cent for Bombay, 31 each for Punjab and Bihar. Bengal continues to maintain very low retention rate : 2 per cent in 1925-26, 4 in 1936-37, 8 in 1941-42 and 13 in 1946-47 (Table C in Appendix).

What is reflected through the statistics presented above? Can we explain them in terms of socio-cultural factors?

Some of the factors responsible for high wastage mentioned by the various quinquennial reports are : a large number of primary or incomplete primary schools with 3 classes which break-up before class IV. Therefore, students who enrol in them drop out. Poor attendance in classes I to III and the 'inefficient primary schools' where only one teacher is in-charge of classes I to V; and lastly un-interesting methods of teaching are the other reasons for low retention rate at the primary level.

So far as the lower retention rate in Madras during 1927-32 is concerned, it may be because parents were willing to send young girls to co-educational institutions but withdrew them as they grew up. It may also

be that parents admitted them to mixed schools initially but withdrew them soon after. The presence of men teachers in the schools may also have been a contributory factor.

These regional imbalances continue to be reflected in the expansion of women's education in the post-independence period although with a slight difference since the princely states had also been incorporated in the Indian Union.

The Report of the Deshmukh Committee referred to the regional imbalance as the second major drawback in women's education. It pointed out that the gap between the education of boys and girls was wider in Orissa, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh than in the other states. Kerala had the highest enrolment (810 girls per 1000 boys) in 1956-57. Looking at the female literacy rates in 1981, Rajasthan (11.31 per cent), Bihar (13.58), Madhya Pradesh (15.53), U.P. (14.42) and Arunachal Pradesh (11.02) stand at the lower end. On the other hand, Chandigarh (59.30), Delhi (52.56), Kerala (64.48) and Mizoram (52.57) have the higher female literacy rate.

So far as the number of girls enrolled in all types of educational institutions in 1977-78 is concerned, the enrolment was highest in Maharashtra (44,64,536) with Tamil Nadu (36,42,878), Uttar Pradesh (35,80,229) and Kerala (27,40,061) following the lead. The number of institutions for girls were higher in Uttar Pradesh (17,519), Bihar (5,742), and Madhya Pradesh (5,474).¹¹

If we were to take the percentage of enrolment in the relevant age group as an indicator, the gap between the boys' and girls' education in classes I-V is very wide in Bihar, Gujarat, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh in 1977-78 and least in Kerala, Meghalaya, Manipur, Punjab. Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra are some of the states where it is not very wide (India, 1981 : 186). At the secondary stage, Kerala and then Delhi have the least gap. The maximum percentage of girls in the relevant age group (25.3 per cent) are going to college (general education) in Chandigarh and Delhi is second (15.7) in this respect. In Delhi, the proportion of girls who are going to these colleges is higher than boys (14.6). Thus, what strikes one is the continuity in the regional variation and the differentiation by level or stages of education.

The Report of the Committee on the Status of Women suggests that any plan must take these regional imbalances into account. It stresses the need for special attention for an even and balanced growth and equal distribution of educational privileges not only among men and women but also among women belonging to different regions, castes and religious groups. It worked out the rate of literacy and enrolment at various educational levels for women and men from Scheduled Castes and Tribes and also by rural and urban areas. It concluded that Scheduled Caste women

in rural areas were the most backward group in the country (1975 : 271) and deserved special programmes.

Thus far we have tried to demonstrate that it is almost impossible to discuss regional variations in educational expansion without referring to differential response of communities to education. We find that there is an overlap between region and community or religion. We have come across references to the fact that different religious communities responded differently and according to their socio-cultural traditions. We do not imply that religion is the only important factor accounting for cultural variation. We are referring to it because data on religion-wise variation are available and religion is an important factor of cultural response.

Religion-Wise Variation

We have argued so far that the differential regional spread derived partly from cultural differences. As for instance, the practice of purdah and the custom of child marriage hampered the progress of women's education in Bengal, Punjab, Bihar and NWFP while their absence contributed to educational expansion in Madras and Bombay. Mayhew refers to the overlap between religious and regional variation thus, "The figures would be far more distressing if communities such as the Parsee, Anglo-Indian and Indian Christian were removed And progressive provinces such as Bombay and Madras veil the appalling backwardness of other provinces." (1926 : 98)

In this section, we shall demonstrate that at another level these cultural differences flowed from religion and therefore, the response of various religious communities varied within a region. For instance, the practice of purdah was a Muslim practice but it had been adopted by Hindus wherever Muslim influence was dominant either because of numerical or socio-economic dominance. This is what happened in Punjab and Bengal etc. Therefore, these provinces lagged behind Madras and Bombay where communities like that of Parsis etc. led the movement for female education (Mayhew, 1926 : 267). However, within Punjab and Bengal, Hindus did better than Muslims because in comparison to Muslims of the same province they were not as rigid in their social customs. While, on the other hand, compared to Hindus of the other provinces (e.g. in Madras & Bombay), they were socio-culturally backward. "Within Madras and Bombay Muslims continued to provide normal education to girls in schools run for Muslims alone" (Anderson, 1932 : 30). Mayhew mentions that in Madras and Bombay Presidency..... "enthusiasm spread from Indian Christians and Parsees to the most advanced sections of other communities. It is essentially the work of Christian missions that is bearing fruit...." (1926 : 267). On the other hand, McDougall in her study of girls in a college in Madras refers to Muslim community having been slower than others to recognize the need and value of higher education for women (1943 : 137).

Yet, what emerges is that after an initial slow start Muslim girls seem to have recovered in most states. For instance, during 1920-30, the enrolment of Muslim girls in U.P. increased by 53 per cent, of Hindu girls by 28 per cent, of Depressed Classes by 379 per cent and of Indian Christians by 9 per cent (Hauswirth, 1932 : 161).

The enrolment figures for girls from different religious communities are available upto 1937. Table D in Appendix gives total female population and the number of female students in general education by their religion. The enrolment of Anglo-Indian and European girl students is the highest (23.15 per cent of total female population) and remains steady during the period 1922-37. Parsis with 19.60 per cent female students in relation to total population are second and Indian Christians third. Hindus, Mohammedans, Sikhs and Buddhists have comparable enrolment in relation to their total female population. Indian Christians had made the maximum gains because their female enrolments went up from 5.18 in 1922-27 to 11.08 in 1932-37.

Again, of a total of 2,966 women attending college in 1932 only 105 were Muslims while their number goes upto 1,008 in 1946-47 (see Table 5).

Table 5
Girls Attending College

| | 1932 | 1946-47 |
|-------------------|-------|---------|
| Hindus | 1,595 | 5,741 |
| Indian Christians | 726 | 4,829 |
| Parsees | 197 | 38 |
| Muhammadians | 105 | 1,008 |
| Sikhs | — | 178 |

Sources : (1) Sargent 1937-47, Vol. 2, p. 293.

(2) Anderson, 1927-32, Vol. 1, Table 55, p. 188.

In the United Provinces, there were 50 Indian Christian girl students, 48 Hindus and 10 Muslims in four colleges at Allahabad, Kanpur, Lucknow and Banares in 1932. Moreover, of a total of 7,082 girls under training as teachers in 1932—2810 were Hindus or Buddhists while 3,086 were Indian Christians, 657 Muslims, and 174 Sikhs (Anderson, 1932 : 181).

Apart from these figures which are available on all-India basis for different religious communities statistics are available in somewhat greater detail about Muslim girl students in different provinces of British India upto 1937. Table E in Appendix presents statistics relating to the percentage of Muslim girl students to Muslim female population in selected provinces of British India. The maximum gains seemed to have been made in the United Provinces where their percentage to total Muslim female population goes up from 0.4 per cent to 12.2 per cent. The other two notable provinces

are Madras and Bombay although an increase is registered in all the provinces.

If we were to compare these figures to the percentage of all girl pupils to total female population, we have the latest figures for 1931-32. We find that except in Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, the proportion of Muslim girl students to Muslim female population is higher in Madras (4.8) and Bengal (2.3) than in British India (1.8). Whereas, the percentage of all girl pupils to total female population in the same year was 3.1 in Madras and 2.3 and 1.8 in Bengal and British India respectively (See Table E in Appendix). In fact, during 1932-37 the number of Muslim girls in public institutions increased by 26 per cent while that of Muslim boys increased by 9 per cent (Sargent, 1938; p. 246).

Various reasons have been suggested for the progress or backwardness of Muslims in certain provinces and these may be applicable to other communities as well. The occupations pursued by certain communities determined their responses to education. Wherever Muslims were agriculturists and lived in rural areas, as in the Punjab and Bengal, they made a slow beginning in education. The Punjab Census Commissioner explained this indifference in terms of their need to use child labour and lack of apparent utility for literacy and education. This affects their women as well as men.

Another reason that is mentioned is their loyalty to traditional learning and religion. Therefore, in Bengal, U.P. and Bihar large number of students attended Maktabas, Madrassas and Mulla Schools. A factor that emerges from the perusal of literature is that wherever facilities in vernacular were provided and the indigenous system of education survived (and expanded), as for example in Bihar, girls in general but Muslim girls in particular seem to have done well (Anderson, 1932: 243; Hauswirth, 1932: 161). Although this led to wastage among boys because the schools were inefficient and also because their education did not lead to jobs, it was good for girls since they could receive some education. The presence of indigenous schools in the initial stages was crucial to girls' education. The Bengal report, on the other hand, mentions that lack of Maktabas, Madrassas and Muslim-managed schools and their location away from the Muslim populated areas led to the backwardness of Muslims in education. These factors, so far as we are concerned, would have affected the girls. The Bengal report also refers to the poverty of Muslims in Bengal and this has a bearing on what we said earlier about the socio-economic status of Muslims and its impact on education.

It does not seem possible to provide comparable data by religion for the post-independence period. Statistics on education by religion are not available in this period through the relevant documents like Education in

India etc. Therefore, one will have to depend largely on micro-studies conducted among religious groups. However, it is worthwhile to indicate the disparities so that policies and programmes relating to women's education will incorporate these and evolve schemes taking the reality into account. Therefore, special efforts may be made to bring up the level of certain communities and in certain states. For that purpose, disaggregated data and analysis may be more helpful. The Committee on the status of women conducted a survey of 1,577 Muslim women in Delhi and 8 other states. It concluded that education was making very slow inroads among Muslim women. This was so even in those states which had made considerable progress in women's education (268 : 454-472).¹²

We may also want to know the reasons for the backwardness of a particular section or community. How far is the level of development of a state or even a district responsible for the educational backwardness of its communities?¹³ How far is this educational backwardness or advance of women dependent on the social customs and attitudes of a particular community? Could one relate it to the dominance of a particular community and its economic position?

The Southern states have generally done better than other states. The North-Eastern states are also making rapid strides. Again Maharashtra in the western region, Kerala in the southern and Delhi stand out. Most of these states, except Delhi, are known for not practising purdah. The hold of purdah and the consequent sex segregation has not been practised in these regions. Kerala had the added advantage of a matriarchal system among Nairs which assigns a relatively better position to its women. It has also a sizeable Christian population which is known for taking a lead in education. The Moplah Muslims of Kerala are socio-culturally different from the rest of Muslims and do not seem to suffer from the hangovers of feudalism. Therefore, generally the response of various communities to education has been very positive. We have already referred to the Maharashtrian women, the freedom they enjoyed in comparison to their counterparts in the sex-segregated North and the impact of social reform movements. Delhi is a metropolitan city with an influx of migrants most of whom come in search of jobs. Again, as the capital of India, it is a major centre of bureaucracy which needs not only literate but highly educated personnel. Therefore, the high rate of literacy and education is understandable.

It would be worthwhile undertaking studies to see the community-wise response to education. Delhi has a sizeable Muslim population living in the old parts of the City. What is its response to education compared to Hindus who also live in the old part of the city and have been there before 1947. The North-Eastern states are dominated by tribal culture. The tribes in these areas are socio-culturally quite distinct from the tribes in the rest of India.

Generally, tribes are not known to practise sex-segregation. The position of women, although it may vary from tribe to tribe, is generally better and they do not seem to suffer from the handicaps from which women in the rest of India suffer. In some tribes, the women are economically independent, in others they may be the earners and socially also not subjugated to men. Therefore, the rapid advance in education of women in these areas and certain communities may be seen in the light of above points.

Co-Education

Separate schools for girls were found in the initial stages in Bengal and other states where missionary activity was strong. In the other provinces the girls either attended boys' schools, as in Madras and Bombay, or did not go to school until much later as in Punjab, Bihar and NWFP. In fact, in early 20th century, more girls were studying in boys' institutions than in the 1930's. For instance, in 1902 as many as 44.7 per cent of the girls under instruction were reading in boys' institutions, but this percentage dropped to 38.5 per cent in 1927 although their overall enrolment had gone up (Anderson, 1932 : 171). The main reason was the setting up of separate schools in the interim period by the social reformers.

Here, too, one comes across regional variation. For instance, during 1927-32 Madras had the highest percentage of girls under instruction as well as a much higher percentage of girls reading in boys' schools than in the other provinces. The low percentage of girls in co-educational schools in Bengal could be attributed to a large number of girls' schools. In 1932

Table 6
Percentage of Girl Students Enrolled in Boys' Schools

| Province | 1922 | 1927 | 1932 | 1937 |
|----------------|------|------|------|------|
| Madras | 52.1 | 55.5 | 51.1 | 59.8 |
| Bombay | 36.4 | 33.9 | 36.2 | 39.7 |
| Bengal | 16.5 | 14.4 | 17.5 | 24.7 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 36.0 | 33.3 | 35.8 | 38.7 |
| Punjab | 5.4 | 8.1 | 11.2 | 10.7 |
| Bihar & Orissa | 42.6 | 39.6 | 42.7 | 42.7 |
| NWFP | 6.0 | 8.6 | 5.9 | 9.4 |
| British India | 37.7 | 38.5 | 38.4 | 43.4 |

Source : (i) Littlehales, 1922-27, Vol. I, p. 155.
(ii) Anderson, 1927-32, Vol. 1, Table 79, p. 170.
(iii) Sargent, 1922-37, Vol. 1, Table 77, p. 155.

more than half the girls' primary schools in British India were in Bengal. This may be due to early start of educational activity in this province. The missionaries and philanthropists like Bethune and reformers like Rammohan Roy and Vidya Sagar provided a boost to the movement for

girls' education. One also comes across references to Bengal being the foremost in the number of single teacher schools. There were 13,663 such schools in 1937, the highest in British India.

Looking at the enrolment figures of girls reading in boys' and girls' institutions, we find that Madras has the highest percentage (Table 6) as well as the highest number of girls (Table F in Appendix) enrolled in boys' institutions. In Madras, this number increased from 198,768 in 1922 to 931,959 in 1947. In Bombay, too, there was substantial increase from 75,602 in 1922 to 268,249 in 1947.

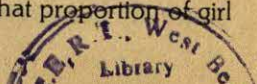
Various facets of this issue have come to the fore during the course of preceding discussion. The first was whether or not to open separate schools for girls and at what level. The response varies by province or region as has already been pointed out. For instance, Bengal had the largest number of primary schools for girls whereas co-education is not under debate (as reflected in the extant literature) in Bombay and Madras. As to the level of education, the main question was at what level should co-education be introduced? By 1930, almost all provinces seemed to be in favour of introducing co-education at primary level, separate schools at the secondary stage and reintroducing co-education in the universities.

Linked to this issue was that of women teachers. In the purdah-dominated areas, the presence of men teachers in girls' schools was not socially desirable. Therefore, missionaries and social reformers concentrated their efforts in setting up separate schools for girls as well as training schools in contrast to those set up by the government which was governed more by financial considerations.

We have mentioned earlier that financial constraint was an important factor in tilting opinion in favour of co-education. A cutback of 24 lakhs in educational expenditure during 1927-32 further helped the cause of co-education. By 1930's backward states like Bihar had come to accept that co-education had come to stay.

Another effect of the shortage of funds was that when separate schools were set up for girls they had to manage with minimum of facilities, e.g. only one teacher in a primary school. Therefore, the choice was between inefficient girls' schools or better run co-educational schools. The government chose the latter alternative. In fact, the government was unwilling to grant aid to inefficient schools. Again, sometimes the number of girl students was not sufficient to warrant the setting up of separate schools for girls. Therefore, pragmatic considerations seemed to outweigh the socio-cultural factors in determining the response to co-education.

In the post-independence period, co-education is no longer considered a problem or an issue requiring countrywide debate. What then is the position of co-education in the post-independence period? What proportion of girl



students are enrolled in boys' schools? Is there a difference by level and by state? Looking at the 1970-71 figures we find that of the total number of girls enrolled in institutions of all levels, more girls are studying in boys' institutions than in girls' institutions. Statewise, less number of girls are studying in boys' institutions in Delhi, Jammu & Kashmir while in all other states more girls are enrolled in boys' institutions except Uttar Pradesh (India, 1970 : 71:151).

Table 7
Enrolment of Girls in Boys' and Girls' Institutions
1970-71

| | Girls in Boys' Institutions | | Girls in Girls' Institutions | | Total |
|-------|-----------------------------|---------|------------------------------|---------|-------------|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | |
| Boys | 5,33,61,370 | 98.86 | 6,16,029 | 1.14 | 5,39,77,399 |
| Girls | 2,00,06,286 | 70.38 | 84,19,715 | 29.60 | 2,84,26,001 |
| Total | 7,33,67,656 | 89.03 | 90,35,744 | 10.97 | 8,24,03,400 |

Source : Education in India, 1970-71, Table IV-M, p. 151.

If we were to consider only middle schools, a higher proportion of girls are enrolled in boys' institutions in Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi, Laccadive & Minicoy and Nicobar Islands. At the next stage, namely, in the high or higher secondary schools more girls are studying in girls' schools in most of the states except in Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, Manipur, Kerala, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Andaman and Nicobar Islands. At the primary level, a larger proportion of girls are enrolled in co-educational or boys' schools in all the states and Union Territories except Delhi.

Most of the reports of committees on education have taken cognizance of co-education as an issue. The Secondary Education Commission, 1953, did not recommend a hard and fast policy due to variation of social attitudes to co-education. However, it recommended separate schools for girls, wherever feasible, for what it called better physical, social and mental development of girls. If girls were studying in boys' schools, then women teachers should be recruited in these schools, curriculum should be modified to suit their needs, and separate facilities for co-curricular activities should be provided.

The report of Deshmukh Committee 1959, concluded that co-education was generally acceptable at the primary stage for educational and social reasons. It also recommended co-education for economic reasons since co-education saved the cost of two schools. However, the report while recommending the adoption of co-education in primary schools as a general policy, did not ignore pockets of dissent. Therefore, it recommended that

separate primary schools may be set up if there is opposition to co-educational schools. So far as middle level education is concerned, views tended to vary. Therefore, the Committee could not make a definite recommendation except that it should be encouraged. It came across strong reservations to co-education at the secondary level and therefore recommended that co-education need not be adopted as a general rule. Separate schools should be set up in the rural areas.

This report mentions regional variations. For instance, co-education was more prevalent in Manipur, Tripura and Kerala and to a lesser extent in Madras, Bombay and Punjab. Therefore, the acceptance or rejection of co-education should co-ordinate with the social customs of a state or region or the community where the school is located. Nevertheless, it supported co-education in general because of the natural opportunities it provides to boys and girls to come together. The Committee on the Differentiation of Curricula for Boys and Girls, 1962, refers to the divided opinion on co-education. Its recommendations for primary and secondary education were basically similar to those made by the Deshmukh Committee. Therefore, it recommended that favourable public opinion should be created in its favour. It referred to the social and moral considerations which governed the response of parents to co-education.

The Committee on the Status of Women, 1974, carried out a survey to elicit views and opinions on this issue. The survey focusses on differential response to co-education by community, region, rural-urban residence, and by class. For instance, the response varied according to the customs of a particular community. Those Muslims who practised purdah tended to oppose it, as for example, the Meos in Haryana and Rajasthan, the Muslims in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and the Moplahs of Kerala. On the other hand, the Kashmiri Muslims did not insist on co-education. Again, in certain areas Hindus disapproved co-education while the Muslims did not. For instance, in Bankheri village in Madhya Pradesh, no upper caste Hindu girl was attending school, even a primary one, since all such schools were co-educational. On the other hand, in a village with a predominantly Muslim population in Bihar Sharif girls were attending co-educational schools even up to middle level. The urban middle classes seem to be resisting it more because of a higher incidence of indiscipline and rowdiness in co-educational institutions. The respondents in a village in Himachal Pradesh thought that if boys and girls could work together in fields, they could also study together. The respondents from the under-privileged sections of society generally seemed to have little objection to co-education.

While indiscipline and rowdiness of boys and generation of immoral behaviour among girls are some of the reasons against co-education, what are the factors in favour of co-education? Apart from economy and efficiency, it is stated that co-educational schools have better facilities in terms

of staff and subjects and that the students' performance improves. This Committee recommended that co-education should be the long-term goal in view of the prevailing social climate.

Curricular Change

It has been a salient issue in women's education and continues to be so even now although in a modified form. However, the view of those who are arguing for a change in the curriculum or in the perceptions relating to it since the 1970's are different from those propounded in the last century since the beginning of western education for girls in India.

Since western education was introduced initially for boys while girls' education merely followed suit, girls began to read the same curriculum as the boys. In fact, the education for boys and girls was structurally and contentwise similar. But very soon opinions began to be expressed that curriculum should be designed to meet the special needs of girls. It was argued or assumed that while boys were receiving education or degrees to be able to get jobs, this was not the reason why girls were studying. Therefore, a plea was made to introduce differentiated curriculae for boys and girls and by 1882, opinion had built in favour of differentiated curriculae. Therefore, the Education Commission, 1882, supports this view while advising a cautious approach.

What comes out from reading that literature is that it was easier for private schools to teach special subjects even within the constraints of grant-in-aid policy which required conformity to curriculum set up by the government. Private schools whether they were run by the missionaries or reformers, had to teach additional subjects if they wanted to include subjects suited for girls. Therefore, the whole debate seems to have been necessitated because of the rules of grant-in-aid. This policy did not allow innovation in subjects. Therefore, the government officials had to be convinced that a curriculum suited for girls' social role was more desirable. In this process, certain subjects emerge as feminine subjects e.g. hygiene, domestic science, needlework, music, home science etc., while physics, chemistry and mathematics become masculine subjects.

Another point that emerges is that discussion on curricular change is linked to the level of education, namely, primary, secondary and higher. There seems to be a general agreement that there is no need for differentiation in curriculae at the primary level. The need is greatest at the secondary level. At the college stage, the curriculum should be differentiated yet the girls should be allowed to take up jobs, if they so desire. Therefore, so far as higher education is concerned, while there continues to be stress on role socialization as the primary function of education, there are some who look upon higher education as training for jobs or even for inculcating critical thinking.

The majority view was that there should be different curriculae for boys and girls (Mayhew, 1926: 271-274, Siqueira, 1939: 129; Chiplunkar, 1930: 232; Hauswirth, 1932: 157; Doren, 1936, vi-vii). It was argued that since girls were not going to take up jobs after completion of education and were going to be married, school education should equip them to become better wives and mothers. Therefore, the curriculum should be made relevant by teaching subjects suited to perform that role more efficiently. Siqueira and Chiplunkar argue that although the moral, emotional and intellectual make up of women and men is common, psychologically and physically, they are different. Therefore, there is need for a separate curriculum to enhance these differences. Sequeira argues that a common syllabus upto primary level is desirable except perhaps girls should be trained in sewing, skipping and weaving instead of games, carpentry and gardening. Mayhew mentions that such a change may not be easily implemented so long as the present degree remained linked to jobs. He opines that parents would not like to give up forever the possibility of a university career for their daughters, since change in curriculum would mean that those who go in for purely home science and allied subjects will be denied the opportunity of going in for a university degree and eventually a career.

Later the All-India Women's Conference propagated the view that education for home is crucial and this led to the founding of Lady Irwin College in November 1932. The basic idea was to utilize science for effective running of home.

By the first quarter of twentieth century, the issue of curriculum change became closely interlinked with the issue of Indianization of education. The uncritical imitation of what was taught in the west was deplored. It was argued that a curriculum which was not relevant to Indian boys would be more so to the girls. Therefore, it should be so designed that the girls will not only be trained to become efficient housewives but also become acquainted with their culture. This was the argument put forward by Indian social reformers and political leaders. European social reformers, too, shared these views.

Whether one argues for change in curriculum with or without reference to Indianization of education, both views put main emphasis on the function of education as role socialization. Therefore, these two may be grouped together as those representing the traditional view. This is the majority view.

There are some exceptions, of course. For example, Choksi (1929: 68,72) and Menon (1944: 17) argue that the primary function of education should be to inculcate critical thinking, particularly at the university stage. Choksi argues that :

.... an alternation on a much broader basis in the high schools is desirable ... to suit the varied needs of a large number. But

it is doubtful whether a university can so circumscribe cultural aims as to propose and equip women as housekeepers, wives or even mothers. Its great aim should finally be to produce accurate, far-reaching and critical thought (68).

Menon is far more radical than Choksi. She mentions that the clamour for a change in curriculum comes mainly from men. She also emphasizes the need for intellectual training and suggests that mathematics, physics and social sciences should not be excluded from the curriculum meant for girls even though certain subjects meant for them may be included.

Hannah Sen and Hansa Mehta take a middle position between the traditionalists, on the one hand, and Choksi and Menon, on the other. While emphasizing the need for relating the curriculum to the life and home and for inclusion of domestic science in all curricula for girls, Sen says that :

It seems paradoxical that, while the progress of higher education has reduced the inevitability of marriage as the only career for women, greater stress is being laid on the study of domestic subjects. The present attitude is but a reaffirmation of the age-old principle that, whether women marry or follow other pursuits, on them will devolve the main task of managing the home, at least for decades to come Indeed.... education, based on the threefold principle of health, beauty and economy, must be available to all women and may be to all men; for men share with women the responsibility of producing healthy children, or providing them with the right atmosphere and of guiding them into a life of self-controlled freedom (1938: 100-101).

Hannah Sen mentions that domestic science in a narrow sense, may be taught at school as well. But at the college stage its potential as a vocational and professional course should not be undermined. "Though training in domestic science may form an essential part of the large majority of girls, it would be well to remember that a woman's usefulness is not circumscribed by the limited demands of her husband and children" (1938: 103).

Here, we may refer to Hansa Mehta's views since she refers to the necessity of choice. While she supported an identical core curriculum for boys and girls, she favoured the addition of subjects useful for girls at high school stage. But at the same time she underscored the need to leave the choice to the girls and was opposed to the Sargent Committee Report which recommended domestic science as a compulsory subject at high school. While she considered it desirable that girls should know domestic science, it should not be forced on those who wanted to go in for university education and a career (n.d.: 21).

The predominant mode of thinking on this issue continues to be the same in the post-independent India. Exceptions have, however, been there and have been indicated earlier. In the post-independence period it is only the Report of the Committee on the Status of Women which questions the accepted view.

The National Committee on Women's Education, 1959, recommended that the curriculae for boys and girls be common at the primary level while differentiation should be introduced from the middle stage. It argued that the curriculum, the syllabi and even the contents should differ according to the social role of girls. At the secondary stage, while the core subjects could be common to boys and girls, additional subjects should be introduced for girls. Therefore, it favoured modifications and improvements in the existing syllabi rather than radical change. It referred to the complete lack of focus on women in history and other subjects and therefore suggested suitable changes in the contents of syllabi. While its recommendations regarding contents were worthwhile and timely, it could not break away from the earlier trend of thinking which emphasized the social role of a girl, and therefore, expected the schools to train them for that purpose. Although it emphasized the overall development of a girl's personality as being of crucial importance, it lay undue emphasis on her role as a wife and as a mother. Therefore, it also identified and labelled certain subjects as feminine and as being specially suited for girls.

The Committee on the Differentiation of Curriculae for boys and girls, 1964, while recognizing social differentiation of roles of boys and girls recommends a common course at all levels. While it also refers to home science etc. as being specially suited for girls and the special needs of girls even at the college level, it did make a break with the past thinking by recommending home science courses upto the middle level, both for boys and girls.

This Committee, as we mentioned earlier, recommended diversification of courses at the secondary and university level while leaving the core common. It also came to the conclusion that so far as general or liberal education and also professional subjects like medicine, law and teaching were concerned, there should be no differentiation in the curriculae for boys and girls. However, it was necessary to provide training in home science to a large majority of girls who were going to become home-makers and unlikely to take to a career. Here the assumption seems to be that those girls who are likely to pursue careers need not be trained in home science, etc. Is it because they are not likely to marry and become home-makers or because professional training by itself trains a person in home making? The Education Commission, 1964-66, endorsed the views of this committee on curricula and syllabi.

The Report of the Committee on the Status of Women, 1975, is the first official report to question some of the assumptions underlying the debate on the need for differentiation of curriculae for boys and girls. This Committee briefly sums up the historical background on this issue in the following words :

These arguments received official support and became a part of the Government's policy towards women's education. Starting with the Hunter Commission of 1882, most Government Committees on education accepted the validity of these arguments. This position remained even after independence and resulted in certain subjects being regarded as specially suitable for girls. Home/Domestic Science, needle work and fine arts thus came to be regarded as exclusively girls' subjects in schools. Mathematics and Science, on the other hand, were regarded as too difficult and unnecessary for girls and were, therefore, kept optional. Consequently, a majority of girls' schools did not provide the facilities for teaching of science and mathematics (India, 1975: 274-75).

It carried out a survey and found wide acceptance of common curriculae for boys and girls. Yet, some parents wanted soft subjects for girls since they were going to be married. While it noted regional differentiation in actual practice, it does not mention the name of states, (275). It points out that certain state schools make no provision for science teaching to girls or science is being taught by teachers who are not trained in the subject. Its specific recommendations include : common courses till class ten; simple needle craft, music and dancing in primary schools for both sexes, differences in curriculae from middle stage under the scheme of work experience, and the need to relate subjects and their contents to boys as well as girls at the university stage. The home science courses should be revised to meet the general as well the vocational needs of boys and girls. It also argued in favour of encouraging girls to take up science and mathematics.

Conclusions

We have come across variation in the growth and expansion of women's education by region and religion. So far as regional variation is concerned, there is continuity in most of the trends reflected in the pre- and post-independence period. Some macro data relating to religious communities are available for the pre-independence period while they are absent for the post-independence period. Therefore, it is not possible to compare the two periods in this respect. However, it is an interesting and worthwhile area for research and deserves to be studied in depth. Perhaps, a number of studies will have to be conducted for purposes of comparison.

We have attributed the regional and religion-wise variations to socio-cultural factors like the practice of purdah, sex segregation and early marriage among certain communities and in certain parts of India. For example, we came across references to Maratha women who were not subjected to purdah and to Muslims being backward in the education of their women. The implication of purdah was that strict sex segregation was enforced and this resulted in the reluctance of parents to send their daughters to school in the initial period. Schooling meant sending the daughters outdoors, something which girls and women were not expected to do except on social occasions. Again, if the schools were mixed or there were male teachers, parents were unwilling to expose their daughters to their company and influence. Therefore, separate schools for girls with women teachers had to be opened in those provinces where this custom was practised. This involved overall higher cost and coupled with the initial reluctance of parents fewer girls could avail of educational facilities. The practice of purdah varied among Muslims and Hindus but also by class since it was mainly an upper and middle class custom and was mainly confined to urban areas. Another implication is that the indigeneous system of education continued to flourish in these provinces; one found Pathshalas, Madrassas and Maktabas in Bengal, Bihar and U.P.

The response to co-education is closely interlinked to these socio-cultural factors and therefore, varies by region. In Bombay and Madras presidencies the issue of co-education is not widely discussed and girls are sent to co-educational institutions sooner than they are in the Punjab, U.P. and Bengal. Later the demand for women's education due to various reasons mentioned earlier and the financial constraints in setting up separate educational institutions for girls changed the response to co-education by the 1930s. Thereafter, the government was encouraged to set up co-educational institutions. However, the private institutions wherever possible, were still set up either for girls or boys. Therefore, if data were available, one is likely to come across a higher number of separate institutions for girls in the private sector than in the public sector.

Although co-education has been discussed by almost all the committees and commissions on education in the post-independence period, it is hardly discussed in the extant literature of the period.

The contribution of the private sector in the post-independence period is very crucial and it seems that girls' education may not have expanded the way it did had it not been for the impetus it received from the initiative of social reformers and missionaries. There is need to collect detailed data on this aspect so that one could measure the actual contribution made by the private sector at different levels of education and in different regions of India in the pre-as well as post-independence period. The comparison of the contributions made by different agents of western education could be highlighted.

The debate on curricular change is very extensive in the pre-independence period. However, in the post-independence period it is mentioned in the official documents alone; otherwise the social scientists did not discuss it until very recently.

We could sum up the debate on this issue in the pre-independence period in the following terms. The relevance of curriculae and the function of women's education, even by the enlightened leaders was viewed within the framework of role socialization. What is surprising is that hardly anyone mentions that the primary aim of education for boys is also to reinforce their social role. No one mentions that boys have to be husbands and fathers and that education should equip them to be better fathers etc. If education for women is to be used for their social role, then why not the same be true of men as well? It indicates the differential importance attached to the social roles of men and women. While the social role of women as housewives and mothers is primary, that of men as husbands and fathers is secondary or marginal in their lives. For men, their role as earner is of primary importance. Otherwise, why should committee after committee and social reformer after social reformer harp on the familiar theme that domestic science, health education etc. should be imparted to girls alone.

Some questions that arise are follows. Was a survey ever been made to find out whether this function could be achieved through schools? Were women not efficient housewives and mothers before the schools came into existence? Even then, i.e. in the early twentieth century, did anyone try to compare the educated wife with the uneducated one?

Again, perusing the literature one finds that diversification of courses in terms of choices—for girls as well as boys—has not been mentioned. The assumption is that choice is not necessary. Moreover, except for some, others do not anticipate a change in the role of men even in future India. The thought of far-reaching reorganization in the division of labour between the sexes is far from the minds of most. So education had to be used for reinforcing the *status quo*. Therefore, from women's roles and women's tasks, we proceed to women's courses.

The developmental perspective on this issue suggests that earlier on the view was that the curriculum for girls should be specially designed to suit their needs. Later, need for change in curriculum for boys and girls was questioned in view of its remoteness from Indian culture and reality. Within that perspective, it was argued that curriculum for girls should be so designed as to make it suited not only to Indian reality but also to their role as wives and mothers. But there is a common point between the two views. The common point is that both views express the need to link school education to the traditional role of girls as wives and mothers.

The idea was mainly to reform society, and not to change it. Home science training would reinforce the existing male and female dichotomy

of roles. Social change envisage structural and fundamental changes whereas reform can be achieved without affecting or basically altering the system. Therefore, even those who argue that women should be educated and be trained for jobs do not want them to do so at the cost of their traditional social role. Surely the woman's place is in the home. But why should schools and home be viewed as incompatible? "Besides, the woman's place is not only in the home, she has a right to be in other places as well, and without any harm to the home, in field, in factory, in hospital and school, in craft and trade and profession, in the highest strata of state, even upon the throne" (Nag and Ghose, 1949: 187).

Three views emerge regarding the need and justification for women's education during the pre-and post-independence period (Mies, 1980: 131-32). The first view which was salient in the pre-independence period was that reform in the social position of women (and education was an important instrument of reform) would reform society. Therefore, basically the demand for women's education arose as a concomitant of social reform movement. Here in, the social role of women was outstanding.

The second view or conception is based on the premise that men and women are equal and therefore equality and social justice are to be provided to the hitherto under-privileged sections of society. Discrimination on the basis of race, caste or sex is to be eliminated. This view was incorporated in our Constitution.

The third and the most recent conception of women's education emphasizes the need to develop all human resources (men as well as women) for the development of society. Thus, the development of society is dependent on women and any view of 'development' must not omit them. The lacuna in the development-oriented programmes has been the focus on men to the exclusion of women. Education is a necessary precondition for the development of human resources.

However, none of these conceptions, except perhaps the last one, questions the existing structure of social relations and social roles of men and women. Recently, some women scholars have begun to argue that unless there is a change in the perceptions of roles of men and women no significant changes can be brought in the lives of women through education. The crucial question here is: Is education for women expected to generate its own dynamics or not?

APPENDIX

Note: Unless mentioned otherwise the sources of the statistics in the tables are the Quinquennial Reports on the Progress of Education in India, 1917-22, 1922-27, 1927-32, 1932-37, 1937-47.

Table A
Institutions for Girls by Management
1946-47

| Province | Recognized Institutions Managed by | | | Private Bodies | | Total Recognized Institutions | Unrecognized Institutions |
|----------|------------------------------------|-------------|-----------------|----------------|---------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| | Government | Dist. Board | Municipal Board | Aided | Unaided | | |
| Bengal | 37 | 75 | 144 | 5,595 | 1,159 | 7,010 | 74 |
| Bihar | 11 | 278 | 151 | 1,569 | 101 | 2,110 | 106 |
| Bombay | 19 | 903 | 658 | 741 | 73 | 2,394 | 20 |
| Madras | 140 | 2,147 | 471 | 1,776 | 13 | 4,547 | 1 |
| NWFP | 2 | 113 | 28 | 71 | 5 | 219 | 63 |
| Punjab | 149 | 1,812 | 343 | 522 | 67 | 2,893 | 2,640 |
| U.P. | 115 | 1,174 | 308 | 718 | 42 | 2,357 | 124 |

Table B
Enrolment of Girls in all Institutions

| Province | 1927 | 1932 | 1937 | 1942 | 1947 |
|----------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|
| Madras | 539,351 | 742,536 | 921,536 | 1,214,438 | 1,435,617 |
| Bombay | 223,317 | 292,658 | 326,571 | 490,337 | 581,333 |
| Bengal | | 559,712 | 733,389 | | |
| Bihar | 119,030 | 126,453 | 119,236 | 162,189 | 164,432 |
| Punjab | 128,880 | 213,287 | 246,059 | 304,320 | 369,768 |
| NWFP | 7,905 | 13,551 | 16,956 | 22,204 | 32,171 |
| U.P. | 124,236 | 167,011 | 224,688 | 275,313 | 310,784 |

Table C
Retention Rate Among Girl Pupils in Class IV

| Province | 1926-27 | 1931-32 | 1936-37 | 1941-42 | 1946-47 |
|----------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Madras | 16 | 12 | 18 | 30 | 36 |
| Bombay | 31 | 23 | 29.5 | 32 | 34 |
| Bengal | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 13 |
| U.P. | 8 | 8 | 12 | 17 | 20 |
| Punjab | 16 | 18 | 19 | 26 | 31 |
| Bihar & Orissa | 3 | 2 | 21 | 32 | 31 |
| NWFP | — | 19 | 16 | 17 | 19 |

Note: Figures for 1926-27 refer to girls studying in girls' institutions whereas figures for other years include those girl students studying in boys' institutions as well.

Table D
Race or Creed of Female Scholars in General Education All Institutions)

| Race or Creed | 1926-27 | | 1936-37 | |
|---------------------------|---|------------------|---|------------------|
| | Number of female scholars in all institutions | Total population | Number of female scholars in all institutions | Total population |
| Anglo-Indians & Europeans | 21,651 | 96,171 | 23,190 (24.11) | 105,211 |
| Indian Christians | 101,538 | 1,374,551 | 71,177 (5.18) | 1,783,461 |
| Hindus | 751,021 | 80,208,170 | 644,451 (0.80) | 86,055,324 |
| Muhammadans | 349,228 | 28,371,691 | 356,809 (1.26) | 31,794,324 |
| Buddhists | 103,806 | 5,824,104 | 44,256 (0.76) | 6,425,083 |
| Parsis | 6,558 | 42,987 | 7,350 (17.10) | 46,356 |
| Sikhs | Not given | 1,020,895 | 15,404 (1.51) | 1,418,143 |
| Others | 16,244 | 3,182,946 | 5,247 (0.16) | 4,027,151 |
| Total | 1,418,422 | 120,211,515 | 1,167,884 | 31,655,053 |
| | | | | 3,113,943 |

Note: Figures in parentheses are percentage of female scholars to total population.

Table E
Percentage of Muslim Girl Students in
Recognized Institutions

| Province | Percentage of Muslim Girl Pupils To Muslim Female Population | | | | Percentage of all Girl Pupils To Total Female Population | |
|----------------|---|---------|---------|---------|---|---------|
| | 1921-22 | 1926-27 | 1931-32 | 1936-37 | 1926-27 | 1931-32 |
| Madras | 2.3 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 6.3 | 2.5 | 3.1 |
| Bombay | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 6.9 | 2.4 | 2.8 |
| Bengal | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 3.0 | 1.8 | 2.3 |
| U.P. | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 0.7 |
| Punjab | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 0.8 | 1.3 |
| Bihar & Orissa | 0.9 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 12.2 | 0.7 | 0.6 |
| British India | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 1.5 | 1.8 |

Table F
Number of Girl Pupils in Institutions for
Boys and Girls

| Province | 1932 | | 1937 | | 1942 | | 1947 | |
|----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| Madras | 379,434 | 363,102 | 550,788 | 370,701 | 794,220 | 474,466 | 931,959 | 503,658 |
| Bombay | 105,876 | 186,780 | 129,530 | 197,041 | 227,663 | 262,674 | 268,249 | 313,084 |
| Bengal | 97,926 | 461,786 | 181,327 | 552,062 | 395,932 | 426,810 | 503,154 | 387,790 |
| Punjab | 23,880 | 268,053 | 26,432 | 219,627 | 36,267 | 268,053 | 29,579 | 340,189 |
| Bihar | 53,947 | 72,506 | 50,922 | 68,314 | 73,940 | 88,249 | 77,593 | 86,839 |
| NWFP | 793 | 12,758 | 1,588 | 15,368 | 1,827 | 20,377 | 2,567 | 29,604 |
| U.P. | 59,873 | 107,138 | 85,565 | 139,129 | 102,083 | 173,230 | 104,666 | 206,118 |

Note: 1 = Number of girls enrolled in Boys' Institutions. 2 = Number of girls enrolled in Girls' Institutions.

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1. Some of these are : Murdoch (1888), Chapman (1891), Billington (1895), Rambai (1901), Maharani of Baroda (1911), Nehru (n.d.), Yaseen (1917), Bhagwan Das (1929), Ghosha (1928), Chiplunkar (1930), Hauswirth (1932), Dasgupta (1938), Cousins (1941), McDougall (1943). These books are in English. We have not explored the regional literature but we assume that literary works relating to women would also have come out in regional languages.
2. We shall elaborate this point later when we take up the issue of curriculum change.
3. The 1882 Education Commission seemed to make an important contribution towards clarifying the official position. Its Report discusses almost all aspects of women's education and emphasizes the role of the government. Thereafter a number of documents were prepared which surveyed the situation and set guidelines. Some of these are : *Notes on Schemes for the Advancement of Female Education in India since 1902*; *Papers Relating to Female Education, 1907*.
4. Interim Report of the Hartog Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, 1929. Quoted in the Report of the All-India Women's Education Fund, p. 11, 1930.
5. As an example, one may mention the case of the American Mission Girls' School at Ahmedabad. This school had 20 Hindu girls on its rolls in 1839. Their number went on increasing till 1842 when several girls expressed a desire to be baptised. When three of them were baptised, their relatives and parents tried to take them away by force. When the parents appealed to a magistrate, he declared that girls of 13 and above could choose for themselves. As a result many girls were withdrawn from schools run by the Christian missionaries. Similar reaction was set forth in other parts of British India.
6. The first official document emphasizing the third conception was the Kothari Commission Report (1964-66). In fact it refers to the goals of education, in general, as being development and productivity. It is doubtful whether the Commission had women in mind at all since it continued to emphasize the role of women as wives and the need for home science course for girls.
7. Sargent, 1937-47, Vol. 2, Table 72, p. 361.
8. *Ibid.*, Table 73, p. 368.
9. *Ibid.*, Table 74, p. 388.
10. If we were to include the private institutions, then Bengal would have the highest number of institutions for girls (see Table A in Appendix). However, this advantage is not reflected in the enrolment of girls. In that respect, Madras and Bombay were far ahead.
11. Ministry of Education, Government of India.
12. Census may be a source for all-India data by religion. However, it is not possible to work it out within the short span of a paper.
13. The appointment of the Bhaktavatsalam Committee was an indication of the recognition by the Government of regional imbalances in the growth of girls' education.

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2

A Struggle for Identity Retention A Case Study of S.N.D.T. Women's University

Neera Desai • Kamlini Bhansali

I

Introduction

Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey (SNDT) Women's University, established in June 1916, is a unique institution devoted to higher education of women. Its history of last sixtyeight years provides a rich illustration of a University's continuous struggle to forge ahead the cause of women's higher education against ideological, social and financial odds.

Present paper attempts to examine the grounds for launching a women's University, to review its performance over the years and finally to answer the crucial question as to when the humanity is at the threshold of the year 2000, is there any justification for continuing a University specially catering to women?

One of the puzzling phenomena about the emergence of University is very aptly presented by Miss Panandikar. She says, "Is it not a paradox that a separate University for women was established in the only province (the Bombay Presidency of yore) where there was no separate college for women and all higher education was co-educational? Was such a project of a separate University for women the necessary logical consequence of there being no separate colleges for women?" (Round Table Discussion, 15). In fact in 1901-02, there were as many as 12 colleges for women in the whole of India of which 3 each were in Madras and Bengal and 6 in U.P. In this respect Bombay province has been an exception. As reported there was not much opposition to co-education. A review of education in Bombay state, 1855—1955, while giving figures about collegiate education mentions, not a single special institution for girls (excepting SNDT) from 1901—1936—37; one thousand two hundred and fortyfive girls were studying in the co-education colleges of Bombay University. In 1954-55 the

review refers to 8 women's colleges. However, out of these 6 were of S.N.D.T., one was Sophia college, Bombay University and one Home Science college of M.S. University, Baroda (Review of Education, 304, 401).

The Indian Statutory Commission of 1929 known as Hartog Commission, also remarked as follows "Co-education in the primary stage does not appear to be objected to since over 68,000 girls are reading in boys primary schools. Amongst the "advanced" classes, co-education, even at the University stage, apparently presents few difficulties since 449 women are reading in the Arts and Professional colleges for men and there are no recognized colleges for women in Bombay, (SNDT was not recognised at the time) (Indian Statutory Commission, 155). The Commission further remarked, "It might be argued that social conditions in these two provinces (Bombay, Burma) render separate colleges unnecessary, but in view of the experience of Madras, it is probable that the establishment of separate colleges would stimulate an even greater advance" (Indian Statutory Commission, 162).

This feeling of hesitancy with regard to separate University for women was not only among the officials but even among some of the social reformers who considered establishment of such a University to be a retrograde step in social reform. Besides Lokmanya Tilak and great benefactor of the widows' Home, Sjt. S.N. Pandit, Mr. K. Natrajan was one of the most vehement opponents of this venture. He wrote on 12th March, 1916, "It is because we are sure that notwithstanding Prof. Karve's excellent intentions the new project will act as a stumbling block in the way of women's education that we have felt ourselves constrained to express our disbelief in it in unmistakable terms" (Quoted in Autobiography p. 370). He again wrote in July, 1920, "We are opposed, and we have been so all along to the idea of separate University for Women. The sole object of a University is the promotion and advancement of learning. There is no sex in knowledge. A separate women's university has always seemed to us to be reminiscent of the medieval Hindu prohibition of sacred learning to women and sudras a prohibition based on a conception that has degraded the position of women in Hindu society" (quoted in Autobiography p. 403).

Similarly a committee was appointed in 1924 by the Bombay Government to consider what reforms were necessary in Bombay University. At one place, the Committee mentioned: "We have had the aims and objects of Karve's Indian University for women at Hingne Badruk explained to us by its supporters and we have read the reports of its progress. But a majority of the witnesses on this subject held that a separate University for women is wasteful of money and effort and is likely to lower the standard of higher education of women. They think that co-education is a sounder principle at the University stage. We are agreed that a separate Women's University with vernacular as its medium is not in the interest of higher education of

women in this presidency" (quoted in unpublished manuscript, *Developmental History of the SNDT Women's University*, 56).

Thus a moot question comes up as to why a special University was started in such hostile atmosphere? Had it anything to do with the founder being in Bombay Presidency? Was it just a whim of the founder and the financial supporter? Before we examine the defence by the indefatigable fighter for women's cause, the founder of the University, Maharshi Annasaheb Karve, it would be useful to look at the socio-economic and educational background in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

II

Socio-Economic Situation in Bombay Presidency

The nature of instrumental requirement for women's education, its purpose and contents are to a very great extent influenced by the image of women in society, the position occupied by her and the role demands from her by the society. These are further affected by the caste and class dimensions. It is well known that upper caste women in the last century were victims of social customs like Sati, child marriage, permanent widowhood, seclusion, lack of education etc.

During the British rule in the fifties of last century attention of the social reformers and enlightend Britishers was drawn to the subordinate status of women. Those were the days when education was considered to be the panacea for all ills. The social reformers not merely recognised the utility of education *per se*, but there lurked a belief "a literate woman is a surer guarantee of the education of rising generation than a literate man". Reformers in Western India like Jyotiba Phule, M.G. Ranade, Behramji Malbari and many others believed that education of women will pave way for the social progress of the country. The avowed liberal political reformer G.K. Gokhale said: "A wide diffusion of education with all its solvent influences among the women of India is the only means of emancipating their minds from degrading thralldom of ideas inherited through a long past and that such emancipation will not only restore our women to the honoured position which they at one time occupied in India, but will also facilitate more than anything else our assimilating of these elements of western civilization without which all thoughts of Indian regeneration are mere idle dreams and all attempts at it are foredoomed to failure" (Natesen pp 882-883). The social reformers strongly believed that in their crusade against child marriage, ill-assorted marriages, permanent widowhood, an educated woman will be a valuable asset. Of course their concept of educated woman was a woman, at best educated upto matriculation.

The reformers during that period were very much concerned with the plight of widows. The practice of child marriage created child widows. The

abolition of sati had saved number of widows from burning themselves. However the Widow Remarriage Act enacted as a result of vehement crusade by Ishwarchandra Vidyasagar and others as early as 1856 encouraged very few remarriages of widows. A Widow Remarriage Association was started in Gujarat in 1868. In 1894 Karve made an effort to vitalize the Association. The main thrust now was to remove restrictions on widow remarriage. However, suffering of the widows continued. She was considered an ill omen, not worthy of remaining present in religious and ritualistic activities and victim of sexual harrassment by the relatives. It is in this background that Karve thought of starting a Hindu Widows' Home Association in 1898 where widows will be given shelter, education and also training for becoming economically independent. Karve had soon realized that the question of remarriage had overtones of religion, hence it required tremendous moral courage on the part of both man and woman to take this step. He, therefore, felt "the best way to advance the cause was, I thought, to educate widows. Education would make them self-supporting and would enable them to think for themselves" (*Looking Back* p.59). Institutions like Sharada Sadan of Pandita Ramabai, Seva Sadan of G.K. Deodhar and Ramabai Ranade, Vanita Vishram of Naniben Gajjar were all started with the objective of imparting education to widows, so that some day they could stand on their own feet. It may also be emphasised that in this period education for women was considered more as a liberal attainment, broadening the mind rather than empowering for job. The role of woman as conceived by society was in terms of wife and mother, at best a social worker, but she was not expected to work as it was in the forties of this century. In fact education of woman was looked upon as an instrument to improve women's efficiency to perform her familial role as wife and mother. It was felt that social adjustment necessary in a joint family living will be possible if the wife is educated. An educated woman can be a proper companion to her husband in his social life and an educated mother can surely rear her children better. It was believed that greater efficiency in her familial role would enhance a woman's status in the family.

As seen above, the social reformers were keen on providing education to women. What was the attitude of the Government? The lead in imparting modern education to women was taken by the missionaries and the credit for having opened the first school for Indian girls in 1824, goes to the American Missionary Society. Private enterprise soon followed. The Students Literary and Scientific Society founded in 1847 established a number of girls schools in Bombay. Similarly, Mahatma Phule established schools for girls in Pune and Maganlal Karamchand started a girls school in Ahmedabad. Thus before 1854, i.e. before the Wood's Despatch on Education, small beginnings in female education were made by non-governmental agencies. The official neglect of female education continued

till 1854.¹ In fact in 1853, it was mentioned that "not a single female has come as yet under the government system of education in Western India" (Review of Education, 388). In 1854 it was decided that government should encourage female education, by a liberal scheme of grant-in-aid. This gave a fillip to establishment of girls schools. Though the University of Bombay was established in 1857, girls were not permitted to appear for the matriculation examination until 1883. Training college for women teachers and mid-wifery classes were started during this period. This was particularly in response to pleas made by Mary Carpenter. The Indian Education Commission (popularly known as Hunter Commission) of 1882 discussed the problem of education of women in depth. It recorded that 98% of the girls of school going age were still outside the schools. In 1881-82, there were 28 special institutions for girls at secondary level and 1581 girls were studying in these schools. The Hunter Commission recommended liberal grants-in-aid for girls school. It further recommended concession in fees, award of prizes and institution of scholarships specially for those who were above twelve years of age. Further a recommendation for separate syllabus for girls was made considering the "requirements of home life and occupations open to women"

The following table gives an idea of progress of education in twenty years.

| | No. of Special Institution for girls | No. of girls in all Institutions |
|--------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| Secondary Schools | | |
| 1881-82 | 28 | 1581 |
| 1901-02 | 67 | 4984 |
| Primary Schools | | |
| 1881-82 | 326 | 19917 |
| 1901-02 | 768 | 76068 |

Source : Educational Review, 391

Not only the quantitative expansion of female education was not much, but further, it was taken advantage by a few minority communities, like Anglo- Indians, Christians, and Parsis. Amongst the Hindus its spread was very limited.

Government resolution of education policy 1904, mentions as follows :

"In their efforts to promote female education, the Government have always encountered peculiar difficulties arising from the social customs of the people but they have acted on the view that through female education, a far greater, proportional impulse is imparted to the education and moral tone of the people than by the education of men and have accordingly

treated this branch of education liberally in respect of scholarships and fees" (*Developmental History of the SNDT Women's University*, 10).

It is important to note that the Governor-General in Council in 1913 recommended the following principles with regard to female education :

- (a) The education of girls should be practical with reference to the position which they will fill in social life.
- (b) It should not seek to imitate the education suitable for boys nor should it be dominated by examinations.
- (c) Special attention should be paid to the hygiene and the surroundings of school life.
- (d) The services of women should be more freely enlisted for instruction and inspection.
- (e) Continuity in inspection and control should be specially aimed at.

(*History of SNDT University*, 12)

This in short was the attitude of the Government towards female education. The nationalists were complaining both with regard to quantitative and qualitative limitations. Thus the socio-educational background suggests that gradually in the upper caste, there was growing acceptance of the value of education for women. As far as widows were concerned, it was also recognised that she be given education so as to be capable of earning her livelihood. On the whole the higher education was restricted to Christians and Parsis. Further, there was no substantial change in the conception of role of women. She was expected to marry early, look after husband and children, undertake responsibilities in the joint family, and provide a favourable atmosphere for certain social change. Growing public life and political movement after the twenties in this century favoured a new role for woman, viz. of participating in public life and devoting her time in social work. It may be noted that support to women's education was justified within the traditional framework of values and behaviour patterns.

It is in this background that Maharshi Karve conducted his various activities. A review of Karve's own involvement with multifarious activities in connection with the upliftment of women and his own conception of woman's role in society, may provide a clue to the baffling question of emergence of Women's University in an area where even women's colleges were not heard of.

III

The Emergence of SNTD Women's University

Karve describes thus the origin of the women's university: "The women's University is the last stage of the development of my ideas and activities. There have been different marked stages in my work for the uplift of Indian women. In 1893 I began to work for the cause of widow remarriage and continued to be the Secretary of the Widow Remarriage Association till 1900. In the meanwhile I took up the work of widow's education and carried on that work till 1916. During the same period I devoted a part of my energy to the question of the education of women in general and worked for the Mahila Vidyalaya and the Nishkama Karma Matha. Lastly came the question of laying down proper courses of studies for women in general" (*Looking Back*, 99). Such is the humble origin of the Indian Women's University.

Thus, in a way, establishment of women's University was a culmination of his various activities in the field of women and education. On the one hand, starting of a University is certainly, as Dr. Paranjpe mentions, "the normal course of evolution for women's educational institutions". Though Dr. Paranjpe and many others had various doubts particularly in the context of paucity of funds and personnel. However, Karve wanted to go ahead with his experiment and he knew full well that it was a leap in the dark.

In order to understand this bold venture, a brief idea of links between three institutions, viz. Widow's Home, Mahila Vidyalaya and Mahila Pathshala will prove useful.

As mentioned earlier while working with the widow remarriage association Karve had realized that the problem of remarriage of widows was not likely to be solved only by creating public opinion in its favour. Even widows particularly with children were not ready to remarry. He realized the need of providing shelter to the widows and educate them, to relieve them of social oppression. In 1896 Karve established Anathbalikashram for protection of young girls and in 1899 he started women's home for giving shelter to widows and for providing education to them. In fact it was neutral to the issue of remarriage. There was no idea of arranging remarriages of the widows. It was strictly an educational institution. The home was empowered to admit married, unmarried girls, since in the aim and objects of the Association it was categorically mentioned that the Association should work for the cause of education of women in general and of widows in particular. However, some of the organizing Committee trustees being opposed to that inclusion of non-widows, Karve decided to start Mahila Vidyalaya in 1907 with a few girls in premises belonging to the Deccan Education Society. One of the aims of the Vidyalaya was to raise the age

of marriage, so that they get enough time to study. Even a Brahmacharya fund was created to financially help poor girls who are ready to take education and remain unmarried upto the age of 20. In his autobiography Karve maintains that if we wish to eradicate the ill-assorted marriages, the girl has to be kept unmarried till 18 to 20 years of age. However, one cannot keep her in the house doing nothing. She should spend some years in the school. He felt that in the scheme of social reform, raising the age of marriage should get priority. He was progressive and perhaps much beyond his times when he said that not only the girl should be kept unmarried upto 20 years, but both boy and girl should be permitted to arrange their marriage by themselves! (*Autobiography*, 254).

By this time Karve had realized the need of selfless workers for pursuing humanitarian causes; hence he ventured to establish Nishkam Karm Matha on the lines of Christian and Buddhistic missions where selfless workers will work in the service of women's upliftment for their entire life time. In continuation of all these activities, came the idea of women's University. The major consideration for Karve to start a women's University was the need of providing special education to women which would be appropriate to the performance of their role in society.

The establishment of a special women's University has raised two fundamental questions affecting the philosophy of education: one refers to co-education and other refers to separate curricula. Karve in 1916, felt that there was justification on both counts, hence he ventured this daring feat. The conditions which made Karve articulate this wish are too wellknown to be narrated in detail. In the annual meeting of the National Social Conference in 1915, Karve had to deliver a presidential address. He accidentally caught hold of a pamphlet describing women's University in Japan. The decision to openly declare his desire to start a Women's University thus got a solid support. He mentioned in his presidential address thus : "Permit me now, ladies and gentlemen, to place before you approximately my idea of secondary and higher education for women. It is based fundamentally upon the recognition of two principles: (i) that the most natural and therefore efficient medium of instruction is the learner's mother tongue; (ii) and secondly that women as a class have different functions to fulfill in the social economy from those of men.... I do not mean that the way should be rigorously barred against those whose ambition would be to beat men on their own ground and compete with them for prizes and honours in the existing Universities. Those who would be in a position by intellectual, physical and financial equipment to do so would certainly be glorious ornaments to their kind and also to the whole community in the present conditions. But we must recognise that both national and social economy require that women should occupy a station of their own distinct from that of men. That they are as integral a part of the social organism as men, is beyond question, but that the office they have to fill is different though

equal—perhaps greater—in importance, is equally true. If men and women, therefore, are to be fitted by education to bear their own respective shares in the preservation, development and evolution towards perfection of the whole community, they must be brought up on two different lines”. However, he clarifies: “This does not imply, let me assure you, that the two lines of education should be absolutely independent of each other and mutually exclusive... In fact the courses must be like two branches on one and the same stem and must be fed and sustained by the same vital sap (*Looking Back*, 103-105).

However, Karve seems to be in a very ambiguous state of mind while expressing his argument for a women’s University. On the one hand as a liberal he feels that women as responsible citizens should be given the same education as that of men. But he seems not to be completely for equality of women in terms of equal opportunity and development of personality. He tends to be thinking that woman though not inferior to man, has a different role to play, particularly in relation to home and family. Hence she should be trained for these roles. It would be useful to introduce one more argument which seems to have appealed to Karve from Japan’s experiment. The protagonists of women’s University in Japan were aware of the growing ‘feminist’ movement in the west during the period, particularly the suffragist movement. The pamphlet mentions at one point, “we cannot support another movement which aims at the so-called emancipation of women. In opposition to this tendency, we lay emphasis on home life as the chief sphere of women’s activities” (*Autobiography* 350). It, therefore, seems plausible that whereas it would be impossible to aver that women’s status is inferior to men, the argument is clouded on differential functions, which indirectly supports the traditional role of women. Of course, in the case of Karve, it appears that there were multiple factors which made him start a women’s university. They could be summarized as follows :

- (i) Need to provide separate course so as to equip a large number of women in liberal education who are not likely to go for academic or professional career.
- (ii) Emphasis of home and family as the major planks of the life of women. Karuna Ahmed mentions rightly: “The whole debate on curricular change in the 20’s (and even prior to it) centres on a woman’s role as a mother and as a wife. Therefore it is argued, that she must be educated but for a limited purpose” (Ahmed, 8).
- (iii) Need for providing higher education to women so as to raise the age of marriage.
- (iv) To prepare a batch of social workers who would be motivated to work for the upliftment of women and thus take part in outside public activities.

- (v) It was also felt that those women who had no desire to marry, should get an opportunity to earn their living and live a life of dignity.
- (vi) To provide facilities of higher education to those girls who would find it difficult to compete with the boys and cannot efficiently learn through English and also master subjects like Mathematics and Science. Thus it was a facility for girls whose educational equipment may be deficient not because of lack of intelligence but because of family background.² This could be revealed from the fact that even in 1973, 45% of the fathers of entrants to the Arts faculty were non-SSC and 37% had gone upto SSC while 87% of mothers were not even SSC. Thus it seems that the reasons for starting a women's university were multifarious, viz. educational, social and expeditious needs of the society.

It is in this background that Karve formulated the objectives of the University as follows :

- (1) Courses of study specially suited to the requirements of girls (inclusion of domestic science, general psychology, child psychology, Hygiene, Fine Arts etc.)
- (2) Use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction and not a foreign language like English as in the case of schools and colleges for boys.
- (3) Permission to candidates to appear for the examinations of this University without attending college (thus making it possible for girls staying in remote places as well as those who were married to take advantage of the University education).
- (4) Inclusion of English as compulsory subject in the collegiate course of studies.
- (5) All India jurisdiction.

The first senate which met on June 3, 1916, had five lady members and a college conducted by the Hindu widows's home started functioning on July 6, 1916 with four students. The first Chancellor of the University was the wellknown scholar, Dr. R.G. Bhandarkar and the first Vice-Chancellor was wrangler Paranjpe. Karve worked as Principal of the college.

Though a girl who had passed matriculation examination could join the college of women's University, however, need for a special entrance examination with liberal requirements, and less rigidity about attendance, was soon realized. It is in this context that many schools were started teaching courses leading to "Karve matric", which was in the eyes of the public little less intellectually rigorous than the Bombay matric.

It has to be noted that the period when Karve started this University, was a period of colonial rule in India. Educational objectives, structure and courses of study were formulated according to the needs of the British government. Those concerned souls who were dissatisfied with the mainstream education, had to carve out an independent existence and develop one's own identity. Vishwabharti University of Tagore, Hindu University at Banaras, and various Gandhian Vidyapiths were independent educational institutions, with their own courses and structures. Similarly when Karve thought of different aims, objectives, syllabus and structure for women's education, he had to start a new University. His conception and programme of higher education for women cannot fit in, in a college affiliated to Bombay University. A woman's college which is part of the Bombay University could not teach different subjects nor could it teach through the mother tongue, nor admit private students.

Thus Karve had to start a separate women's university. As mentioned earlier there was considerable opposition to the idea but Karve was adamant, and did not succumb to various pressures. He carried on his monumental experiment without any help or recognition from the Government. In fact one of the greatest hurdles was financial. When Sir Vithaldas Thackersey stepped in and gave a munificent grant of Rs. 15,00,000/- the University got security. Karve mentions in his autobiography that it is very astonishing that Sir Vithaldas should have been inspired by the same Japan's University. A marked turning point in the life of University came when Sitabai Anigari who was a committed worker and senior student in the women's University accompanied Sir Vithaldas and Lady Pramila Thakersey in their trip round the world. When the party visited Japan and Japan University for women Sir Vithaldas was considerably impressed. Thus a visionary and benevolent donor joined hands to work for educating women. From the time when the donation was given, i.e. 1920, the University came to be known as Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University (SNDT), in commemoration of the memory of the mother of the donor. After the untimely death of Sir Vithaldas in 1922, Lady Thackersey nurtured the University.

The University campus was set up at Yerandavana, Poona in 1920 on 24 acres of land. The first college of the University started on July 6, 1916 was taken over by the University and established on this campus in 1923 together with a hostel.

The growth of the University will be better appreciated if we divide the period from 1916 till to-day into four broad phases. This first phase which commenced from 1916-1951 is the phase of gestation when the University helped bringing out a number of girls to the institution of higher learning. The second phase from 1951-1966 is the period when the University got charter from the Government and could be described as a period of

establishing acceptability. The third phase from 1966-1976 is of innovation and development of newer areas. The last phase from 1976 till to-day has been a period of new challenges.

We will briefly describe all these phases.

Phase of Gestation 1916-1951

This period is fraught with both trial and achievement. Started under controversial climate, emphasising courses to be studied in the mother tongue and without any recognition from the government was certainly a bold step.

Some of the Commissions on education did take note of this University. But lack of recognition had been affecting the number considerably. In the annual report of the University in 1926, while lamenting the fact about decline in the number, it is mentioned that want of Government recognition to the examination of the women's University is one of major factors. With the tragic note it added: "Coins sent out from the Government mints are accepted everywhere, but private pieces of metal are required to be truly genuine and unalloyed if they are to be valued with Government coins" (*Report*, 4).

Socio-politically this period was of tremendous national awakening. The political movement under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi, emphasised the equal political participation of women in freedom movement which resulted in considerable emancipation of women from traditional restraints. Numerous women's organizations were started to press for women's demands. By the forties middle class women started entering the employment market. Besides working in the traditional fields of teaching and nursing, particularly after the Second World War, women started being employed in offices. The growing economic needs of the middle class provided encouragement to women's education. The Sharda Act, Married Women's Property Act, right to vote and stand for election, and such other legal enactments paved the way for raising the legal status of women. Marriage age of the educated men was rising, having indirect effect on women's age of marriage and education.

The degrees conferred by SNTU University were known as GA (for graduate) 'Grihitagama' meaning one who has acquired knowledge and PA (post-graduate) 'Pradeyagama' one who is ready to impart knowledge. In the three-year degree course, English was a compulsory subject all the years. Modern Indian language, History, Sociology, Domestic Science, Physiology and Hygiene, Psychology were some of the compulsory subjects which the student had to master before she became a graduate. It was a well-balanced course with areas of humanities, social science and biological science. Care was taken that the student developed command in her own mother tongue.

As far as entrance examination was concerned there was some difference between the Bombay matriculation and Karve matriculation. Though no student was admitted, who had not passed in English at the entrance examination, facilities for a student who did not wish to go to college were available and she could appear in the entrance examination without English. Similarly, a student appearing for all papers of the G.A. degree course excepting English was awarded a certificate. (This facility was discontinued subsequently).

The S.N.D.T. University being both teaching and affiliating University during this phase gave affiliation to some institutions of higher learning as well as girls schools. In 1922 S.L.U. College of Ahmedabad was the first to get affiliation with this University. The emergence of this college is very interesting. In 1916, after convincing Mahatma Gandhi about the utility of a women's University, Karve went to Ahmedabad as a part of his propaganda tour. Mahatma Gandhi presided in a meeting where Karve made a fervent plea for the University. Vanita Vishram school was giving education upto matric. With the cooperation of the first Bombay University graduates of Gujarat—Smt. Sharda Mehta and Lady Vidyagauri Nilkanth, S.L.U. College was started. Until 1957, this was the only girls' college in Ahmedabad. Mahila Mahavidyalaya at Baroda was started when Karve visited Baroda in 1922; girls studying for the entrance examination at Maharani Girls' High School were allowed to appear for the Karve entrance examination. With the efforts of Gujarat Stree Kelavni Mandal of Ahmedabad (where Sharda Mehta was active worker) the first college in Baroda affiliated to the SNTD University was started in 1923. A common pattern emerged in places like Bombay, Bhavnagar, Surat, where initially coaching classes to train students for entrance examination were conducted which were later transformed into colleges. Thus in 1951, two conducted Arts colleges, one at Bombay and one at Pune, and three affiliated colleges, out of which one was a training college, were with the SNTD University.

The degrees conferred upto 1950 were as follows :

| | | |
|----------------------|--------------|------------|
| Faculty of Arts | G.A. (B.A.) | 1453 |
| | P.A. (M.A.) | 98 |
| Faculty of Education | B.T. (B.Ed.) | 72 |
| | | <hr/> 1623 |

In Bombay Presidency in this period the total number of girls studying in all institutions was 9,167. The situation has considerably improved since 1922, when at SNTD there were 40 girls while in Bombay University, there were 179 girls.³

In summing up, one could say that during this period the University was basically interested in providing liberal education to women. It was

thought that this kind of education will broaden the outlook of women and help understand the life around them. It was in this phase of its development that the University played a role of social reform organization, trying to bring out women from orthodox homes, providing them various facilities and encouragement so that they may get the advantage of higher learning. It was attempting to elevate the status of women via education. Many well-known writers, academicians, social reformers were attached to the various colleges of the University and were giving their services largely in honorary capacity or with very modest remuneration. Their services remind us of the period of 1848 when the scholars of Elphinstone Institute took trouble to teach girls in the institutions run by student's literary and scientific society. In the SNDT University at that time were involved persons like K.L. Joshi, Vamen Malhar Joshi, R.K. Lagu, N.R. Phatak, Y.S. Pandit, H.G. Anjaria, Ramnarayan Pathak, C.L. Gheewala, J.J. Anjaria, Sarda Mehta, G.G. Dhru and others.

The University in this gestation period had to work under hostile or indifferent atmosphere with very little support from the academic community and society. A very significant event occurred in the year 1948 on the 90th birthday of Karve when the Bombay Government announced the intention of giving recognition to the University and in 1951 under the Congress Ministry of Shri B.G. Kher the bill was passed putting the University on the statute book and renaming it the SNDT University.⁴

Establishing Acceptability, 1951–1966

The period begins with the recognition of the University by the government and ends with celebration of its golden jubilee.

Just as enshrining equal status in the constitution of Free India had generated a feeling that now the problems of women are over and it is merely a question of time of achieving equality, similarly with the granting of the charter there was a feeling that problems of SNDT University have come to an end. However, the progress of the University both in terms of quantity and acceptability was not very smooth as expected, due to various reasons.

The constitutional equality, the participation of women in political processes, growing economic activity of women both in traditional and non-traditional occupation the improved legal status due to the enactment of Hindu Law of Marriage, Divorce, Inheritance in 1955 and 1956 widened the array of roles of women and made multiple role demands on her. Even her role in family was altering. As a wife and particularly educated wife she had to share with her husband in life outside home also. As a mother she had to play a significant role in moulding the life of her children in the trying period of teenage turmoil. Besides this, there has been a growing awakening in women's mind. All these factors have affected the University particularly in devising its courses.

The University's major anxiety was to adjust with other universities. This was also a period when states of Gujarat and Maharashtra were created. Since the University had colleges in both the states problems of parity were created.

The University started Home Science in 1960, Library Science in 1961 and Nursing Faculty in 1964. In 1951-52 there were 2 conducted colleges and 3 affiliated colleges, further there were 2 conducted schools and one aided school. In 1966 it had 7 conducted colleges in various faculties and 9 affiliated colleges. It ran three conducted schools and one aided school. Thus quantitatively the growth is striking. Even regarding the number of students the progress is evident.

| Year | Regular | Private | Total |
|-----------------------|---------|---------|-------|
| 1951 | 854 | 300 | 1154 |
| 1966 | 5979 | 2850 | 8829 |
| Grand total upto 1966 | 45749 | 35620 | 81369 |

Facultywise distribution of students

| Arts | | | Education | | | Home Science | | |
|---------|------|-------|-----------|------|-------|-----------------|------|-------|
| U.G. | P.G. | Total | U.G. | P.G. | Total | U.G. | P.G. | Total |
| 1965-67 | | | | | | | | |
| 4,850 | 173 | 5023 | 298 | 47 | 345 | 522 | 11 | 533 |
| Nursing | | | | | | Library Science | | |
| 54 | | | | | | 24 | | |

Total regular students 5979 (Golden Jubilee Volumes 16, 17, 18)

In 1966 the University celebrated its golden jubilee which was inaugurated by Prime Minister Indira Gandhi and the closing function was presided over by President Dr. Zakir Husain.

Though the University had gained recognition from the Government and bodies like UGC, the University's trial period was not yet over. During this phase not only many more Universities were started in states of Gujarat and Maharashtra, some of the special features like teaching through mother tongue, admitting private students were adopted by some of these new Universities. Thus the University had to face serious competition. Further, there was a growing desire amongst the girls to attend co-education institutions. In short University entered into a new phase of struggle.

Period of Innovation 1966-1976

This period ended with the University celebrating diamond jubilee.

This period in the life of the University is a very significant one. The University expanded in terms of institutions, student enrolment and programmes. The enrolment in the professional courses showed a marked increase.

Looking at the expansion in terms of institutions, there were eight conducted colleges, 5 in Bombay and 3 in Pune. Out of fourteen affiliated colleges seven were in the city of Bombay while rest were in the states of Maharashtra and Gujarat. During this phase new departments such as Guidance and counselling, language teaching, audiovisual, were added in the education college, cell for reform in examination was started. However, the crowning achievements of this phase which point to its future directions are the establishment of Department of Continuing and Adult Education in 1971; establishment of the Research Unit on Women's Studies in 1974 and organization of a round table discussion in 1973 on the future trends in women's higher education and the role of SNDT University as a part of its celebration of birth centenary of Sir Vithaldas. This was an exercise into institutional self-searching and accountability. The continuing education department is trying to reach out to the community through various non-formal programmes. The Research Unit of women's studies, one of the earliest of its kind, conducts research on women, collects and disseminates information on women through its various organs and organizes programmes for designing courses and preparing reading material on women's studies.

This period in short is more of moving into newer directions. The University is widening its role from mere teaching and affiliation to extension and research. This is in the context of the fact that the liberal arts faculty is facing the problem of survival in almost all universities.

Phase of Newer Challenges and Struggle for Identity Retention 1976 till Today

The final phase is a very crucial period in the life of the University. It is innovative, challenging and being a constant reminder of achieving and retaining identity. All these three strands interact with each other and provide a complex structure of the University.

One of the major events which affected the life of the University is the new structure of 10+2+3, which on the one hand made English and Science compulsory at the SSC Stage. On the other hand, there has been unprecedented attraction for Commerce stream which has serious implications for Arts faculty. The growing popularity of English medium institutions and flair for going to co-educational institutions are additional factors which have substantially affected the liberal Arts institutions.

In this background let us look at its various institutions, enrolment and programme. To-date, there are twelve conducted institutions with nearly 22 post-graduate departments giving training in M.A., M.Sc., M.Phil, M.Lib. and Ph.D. New faculties like Commerce, Pharmacy and Science are added. There are 12 affiliated colleges to the University.

One of the major achievements during this phase has been the introduction of correspondence education having programme of distant

learning and open University programme through which the University provides a second chance to those women who are in 21 + age group and who could not finish high school education, are allowed to enter the University, after they fulfil some minimum requirements. These are the programmes through which University absolves itself from a charge of elitism. It has also entered into social action through its rural programme which is something unique where various departments of the University are participating.

The University faculty is busy gearing its courses to the new demands of women. It has to provide job orientation to the courses. Training in newer jobs has to be provided which is being done to an extent, by its polytechnic. It is trying to modernize liberal Arts and Commerce faculties by introducing more relevant courses. In short, the University is developing a mix of formal and non-formal education, of liberal and vocational courses and evolving a flexible and forward looking approach.

The enrolment situation could be seen from the table on the next page.

The table is indicative of certain trends which could be seen in the women's University. There is a steady growth in some of the professional colleges. Similarly the external correspondence programme is also quite popular. However, the liberal arts and commerce are not yet catching. At all-India level there were 7,48,525 women students studying in various courses in 1980-81. In SNDT, the number is about 20,000 which means about 2.6 per cent students are studying in SNDT. Within the last 65 years the University has produced 58,622 degree/diploma holders.

We have described this phase as challenging because there is constant pressure on the University to get rid of its special features. The University on the other hand is making serious efforts to retain its identity.

STUDENT ENROLMENT

FACULTY

| Level | Arts | Commer- ce | Home SC. | Nurs- ing | Pharma- cy | Education | LIB. SC. | Technology | Science | Total |
|---|--------|---------------|-------------|--------------|---------------|-----------|-------------|------------|---------|--------|
| 1. Jr. College | 1,992* | 3,120* | 765 | — | — | — | — | — | — | 5,877 |
| 2. Under Graduate | | | | | | | | | | |
| (a) Regular | 3,256* | 1,337* | 758+ | 158 | 62 | — | — | 378 | — | 5,949 |
| (b) External/ Correspondence (open Univ.) | 5,223 | 144 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 5,367 |
| Total | 8,479 | 1,481 | 758 | 158 | 62 | — | — | 378 | — | 11,316 |
| 3. Post Graduate | | | | | | | | | | |
| (a) Regular | 427* | — | 49 | 21 | — | 354* | 52 | — | 69 | 972 |
| (b) External | 1,226 | — | — | — | — | 100 | — | — | — | 1,326 |
| Total | 1,653 | — | 49 | 21 | — | 454 | 52 | — | 69 | 2,298 |
| 4. M.Phil. | 18 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 18 |
| 5. Ph.D. | 13 | — | — | — | — | 1 | — | — | — | 14 |
| Grand Total | 12,155 | 4,601 | 1,572 | 179 | 62 | 455 | 52 | 378 | 69 | 19,523 |

Note: *Includes students from 12 affiliated colleges - Jr. College - 1,169 (Arts), 2,207 (Commerce)
 Under graduate - 2,604 (Arts), 981 (Commerce)
 Post graduate - 73 (Arts), 36 (Education)

+ Includes students of the Certificate course in Home Science

* Consists of students of various diploma courses in the field of technology.

IV

Evaluation of the Women's University

While discussing the various phases we have been presenting quantitative and qualitative trends which are discernible in the development of the University. Earlier we mentioned that in 1973 a round table discussion with educationists, social workers and academicians was held. During that period series of discussions were held with the faculty members. Periodical surveys of students have been undertaken which give indication of their social background and their attitude to the University. In this paper an attempt has been made to tie up together all these findings and present a perspective on women's University's role in modern India.

The faculty discussion mainly centred round changing role of women in society, goals of the University and relevance of the University to-day. It has generally accepted that women's role is changing and changing fast. Society now expects women to participate in developmental activities. Though even to-day her primary role is that of home maker, yet she is expected to go out for work. Education is presumed to make her self-reliant and confident, so that she could face any situation. It was also suggested that facilities like child-care, transferring of credits, part time studies will facilitate women to perform their multiple roles.

The faculty members were of the opinion that goals and objectives set by the founder should be retained, with a change where a woman should not be trained for only traditional role, but be equipped for jobs. Further her knowledge base should be broadened. University should prepare a new generation with modern outlook, new perspective and progressive values. The faculty recognised that the students particularly of liberal Arts are weak in academic achievement and come from orthodox homes. Some of the limitations of the students like less oriented to achievement, weak in general information are due to the social background. The special facilities given to students in order that they are not socially handicapped are misconstrued as lowering of the standard.

With regard to the relevance of the women's University, the faculty members felt that about seventy years back when the University was established, it had a special mission to perform which it has not only fulfilled but fulfilled well. The need for a separate University still persists in both rural and urban areas. A Women's University, along with the mainstream academic pattern, can still provide overtones of the women's needs and perspective. It can offer many more electives and specializations. It is in this atmosphere that some of the inhibitions of women melt and they develop confidence and leadership qualities.⁵ According to the faculty members,

the future of the University depends on its readiness to offer varieties of courses, developing new centres of excellence, introducing English stream where necessary etc.

Having looked at the faculty's evaluation of the University's role, it would be useful to know how students perceive the utility of the University. As seen earlier, University is not an elite institution catering to the needs of sophisticated upper class sections of the society.

In the beginning, University was an institution where girls belonging to upper castes but economically less advantaged sections were coming. In the early reports of the institution when caste and occupational break-ups of the students were provided, it was found that many of them were daughters of pensioners, widows and agriculturists. Even the founder mentioned at one place that the women's University will be catering to the needs of less economically fortunate girls and also who could not spend much time and money over mastering the more intellectually rigorous subjects. He further tried to aver that this should not be misconstrued as girls taking education in the University are of inferior intelligence. He felt that those who are of average intelligence should not take a suicidal step of going to the co-educational Universities. He felt that SNTU University graduate in some respects were better than Bombay University graduates (*Autobiography*, 366).

Karve, in 1928 attempted to compare the performance and life styles of SNTU graduates and Bombay University graduates. He took 28 graduates of the former and 41 of the latter, who had graduated during 1919 to 1927. It is interesting to note that out of 28 SNTU graduates nearly 82% of them were involved in some sort of outside paid activity, and not completely merged in their traditional role. On the other hand, out of 42 graduates of the Bombay University around 70% were working. The comparative chart also indicates that graduates of both the University are mostly working as teachers in various schools. Karve also highlights another point of difference that most of the Bombay University graduates are working in Government Institutions while SNTU graduates are in private organizations (This could be due to non-recognition having other adverse implications). He pleads to the graduates of both the University that they should not go after high posts with fat salaries, but should go to district towns, taluka towns and start schools for girls. He also feels concerned about the future of the graduates of the SNTU University and therefore appeals that one should judge the performance of the graduates not merely on their academic achievement but how they are faring as individuals undertaking familial responsibilities and working for social and national development (*Autobiography*, 436-442).

Thus it is clear that the graduates of this University were to be oriented more to social work and social responsibility rather than personal career development.

We feel that the same considerations are still persisting even after more than fifty years.

A survey made in 1973 of 10% sample of the entrants of the University comprising of 4552 students belonging to Arts, Home Science, and Nursing faculties indicated the following :

- (i) Most of the students come from upper and intermediate castes. In Home Science, Christians and Parsis are to be found.
- (ii) Fifty six per cent of the students come from girls' schools.
- (iii) 76% of the girls have passed their examination at first attempt.
- (iv) 65% Arts students have offered English as a subject at SSC but only 38% have passed.
- (v) In Arts faculty only 1.8% have secured first class marks.
- (vi) Half of the students come from income level below Rs.600 while only 16.9% are from income above Rs.1,000/- It may be noted that Home Science graduates come from more affluent background.
- (vii) Fathers of about 80% have not studied beyond SSC level while only 12% mothers of the respondents have gone upto SSC.
- (viii) Reactions to the most important question viz. reasons for joining this University, provide interesting sociological insights. The important reasons for the Arts students are teaching through mother tongue only for women and scope for choice of subjects, while for the Home Science, facility of options, prestige of the college and only for women are significant considerations for joining this University.
- (ix) In contrast the attraction for other Universities rests on fluency in English, higher academic orientation and facilities for science, medicine and such other options (Round table discussion 65—78).

Employment is considered to be one of the significant components for enhancing the status of women. Though in the founder's mind, this was not the basic motivation, yet he did value women's outside participation. The last four decades have fundamentally changed the role of middle-class women. They are expected to earn or at least be equipped for earning. A survey of the graduates of the SNDT University in the context of their employment pattern was undertaken in 1977 which provides significant insights. The study is based on 30 per cent sample of employed graduates of SNDT University, consisting of 307 Arts graduates, 53 Home Science graduates and 174 external students belonging to the Arts faculty. In all it is a study of 534 graduates. Some of the highlights of the findings are as follows :

About 39 per cent of the SNDT graduates are working. (This proportion must have increased in the last 6 to 7 years.) The distribution of the graduates in different occupations still indicates traditional overtones. Most of the graduates are found in teaching and office work. The Home Science graduates work as dieticians, laboratory assistants, etc.

It was found that the graduates of the University basically considered themselves as secondary earners. This is further reinforced by the data on reasons for working which are interesting. Whereas the external students seem to be tossing between familial need for financial support and concern for utilising education, as far as regular students are concerned, they seem to be working for utilising the time, perhaps before they get married.

However, when seventy percent of graduates expressed their desire to work in future, it is indicative of the growing financial contribution and preference for a non-stereotyped life style.

One of the disappointing phenomena as far as job potentialities for the SNDT graduates and more particularly the image of the University are concerned, is that even now SNDT Graduates are not comfortable while communicating in English, and the inferior status of the SNDT University still persists in the mind of the employer.

In short the SNDT graduates are not much different as far as employment orientation is concerned. But the trail of hierarchy among the educational institutions operates very strongly and SNDT graduates have to suffer this discriminating treatment.

A Story of Struggle for Identity

We have in these few pages described the trials and turbulence of an educational institution which has been trying to retain its identity of being a unique women's university. Nearly hundred years' saga of higher education for women has also pointed out certain sociologically significant factors for such a situation.

During last thirty years, there has been a marked change in its structure, thrust, programmes etc. However, there are two or three features which are still continuing, perhaps for retaining these which are very specific traits of this University, the University has to carry on a ceaseless struggle. They are: the University still caters to women' students only. It teaches through the regional languages in its liberal arts faculty; it continues to experiment in areas, subjects and training which would be helpful to women in performing their roles.

The outside forces have been testing in a way the patience of the University. The new educational pattern of 10+2+3 has created a situation where it could only admit students who have passed in English. University is further walking on a tight rope when it has to perennially struggle

for maintaining a balance between offering courses which are on par with other Universities and courses which are innovative, women specific, non-traditional etc.

The faculty of the University seems to be also battling between the academic role of the University and role as a catalyst for social change. The thrust of the University is definitely changing from liberal arts to vocationalization. Thus it is a struggle of sensitive educational institution for accepting change in the broad context of retaining its core feature.

If we look from the quantitative point of view, the success story is not very striking. Nor can one say that women's higher education expanded because of the SNDT University. But we can undoubtedly aver that the University took higher education to the lower middle class and middle, middle class strata where perhaps it would have not reached for a long time. Dr. J.C. Sandesara highlighted the role of the University and said that it attracted students from the lower middle class and thus helped reducing social inequality (*Round table* 115).

One of the major dilemmas before the University is: For what role should the students be prepared? When the University was started the founder was very clear in his mind that women have to be prepared for the family role. During the last fifty years there has been a sea change in the socio-economic situation. A girl is ordinarily going to marry and look after her household duties. But one cannot rule out a situation where women might have to earn. Here no one is referring to her right to earn for her personal enhancement. But there might be some contingency, like widowhood, desertion, husband not earning enough, need for higher standard of life etc. which may require a woman to go out for earning. It is also felt that this kind of contingency is affecting larger and larger sections of society. Hence link between education and employment is though not direct cannot be ignored.

This ambiguity takes us to the most fundamental question: what is the need of the women's University to-day? It would be interesting to refer to some of the convocation addresses where this question is posed and also being answered. In the context of devaluation of sex segregation, separate courses for women being indicative of reinforcement of subordinate role of women, the rationale for existence of a women's University is being questioned.

One significant trend which has been noticeable since independence, is that inspite of doubts and hesitation with regard to separate women's University, number of women's colleges are increasing, e.g. in 1980-81, there were 609 girls colleges all over the country. Similarly till 1981 SNDT University was the only women's University, now there are two more Universities which have come up, one in Tamil Nadu and another in Andhra.

Earlier ground of orthodoxy does not seem to weigh much. Laxmi Menon in her convocation address was lamenting the growing feminine mystic phenomenon. She remarked, the advantages of higher education so recently acquired are being neutralized by a new type of slavery when academic brilliance and distinction are set at nought by offering exotic attraction. While answering the question of continuing validity of the University she: "In India to-day and at least in the near future there are and will be many parents who would want to send their daughters to exclusively women's colleges. Secondly such mixed institutions are not sufficiently numerous to-day to meet the growing demand for higher education for women, even for girls whose parents may not mind sending them. Thirdly, institution of this kind offer opportunities for women who may like to learn the art and science of home making whether they want to be only home makers or they want to opt for professions available to them. These opportunities are not generally available in mixed institutions. Further women's colleges and universities like the SNDT can do a great deal to conserve and cherish the valuable elements in our historic conception of womanhood in these changing times" (Convocation address, 11-12).

Very salient points were made by Prof. Nurul Hassan the Minister for Education and Social Welfare in 1977. According to him a women's University should perform three or four vital functions. Firstly it should help in conceptualising the role of women in society. The complementarity of the roles of men and women is universally agreed. But how to prevent stereotyping of roles of men and women, which in the final analysis leads to giving dominant position to men and subordinate position to women? Women's University should continuously ask the basic questions, like what do we mean by equality of sexes? What are the changes needed in our social institutions to give equality, justice, freedom and dignity to women?

Secondly the women's university should consider itself a watchdog with regard to the various policies and programmes of the government and see that they are in line with the avowed objective of improving the status of women.

The third important function according to Prof. Hassan is of extension work which will enable the University to reach out to the large mass of women who lie outside the scope of our educational efforts. In this task attempts should be made to utilize the talents and energies of educated housewives.

Fourthly in this scientific age, women must help in spread of science and technology in society (Convocation address, 4.7).

To sum up one can say that to-day the University for women should not only aim at the highest academic achievement for women but it has to fulfil many more needs. It has to provide training to women for becoming efficient workers, it has also to provide leadership in creating awareness

in the community with regard to the status and problems of women, to provide leadership in raising the status of women. If it only provides education in the same manner as is done in mixed institutions, there can hardly be any justification for a separate University. The SNDT University through its newly started faculties of commerce and science, through departments like continuing education, Research Unit on women's studies, cell for legal counselling, programme of scientific awareness for rural women, and programme of open University, indicates its readiness for meeting the new challenges.

Being modest in size and compact in structure the University is able to alter its programmes more easily and work for group interests rather than individual excellence. SNDT University perhaps may not have been able to project many individual shining stars but through collective effort and concern for women it has been able to consciously and committedly work for lighting the lamps of knowledge for a vast number of women.

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1. Even Mount Stuart Elphinstone who did much for education of men, was absolutely silent on the issue of education of women. His long minute of 80 paragraphs does not contain any reference to female education.
2. The Hartog Commission in 1929 mentioned, "There is necessity that India should produce women who after receiving the highest academic education are capable of inspecting and advising in the planning of women's education of all grades. On the other hand the fact must be kept in view that overwhelming majority of Indian girls are destined for married life (Hartog Commission, 173)
3. The Hartog Commission while reviewing the progress of women's education mentioned. "The University has done good work for the higher education of women in the Bombay Presidency. But the absence of recognition of its degrees has naturally influenced the size of its college. We understand that absence of recognition has been due to an anxiety on the part of the University to avoid control over the curricula and conditions of examination in the college". (p. 162)
4. It may be noted that the Congress Ministry since 1934 gave recognition to the graduates of this University for service purpose. The University also got recognition for its entrance examination by the college of physicians and surgeons in 1927.
5. It would be useful to quote from convocation address of Prof. Namjoshi, in 1972. He refers to Dame Kathleen Lonsdale who remarked, "I am extremely sorry to see the disappearance of all women's colleges for this very reason they provided an admirable training ground for those capable women whose natural humility (an excellent trait in many circumstances) would lead them to take a second place in a mixed company of men and women". Prof. Namjoshi adds, "It will be agreed therefore, instead of forcing a girl to develop non-feminine traits to become an intellectual person, she may be allowed to find her intellectual growth treasuring the most beautiful traits".

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Concessions and Incentives to Educational Institutes for S. C. Students at School Stage in Rajasthan

R.C. Sharma

Rajasthan used to be called Rajputana upto 1948. The state of Rajasthan came into existence as a result of integration of 22 princely states and chiefships in 1949. The state in its present form was constituted on November 1, 1956 under the State Reorganisation Act of 1956. According to 1981 census, the total population of the state is 34, 261, 862 persons. The population of scheduled castes stands at 5, 838, 879 persons in 1981 which accounts for 17.04 percent of the total population in the state. Out of a total scheduled caste population of 5, 838, 879 in 1981 as many as 4, 790, 504 persons live in rural areas, whereas only 1,048, 375 reside in urban areas. The data show that 82.05 percent of the scheduled caste people live in rural areas, whereas 78.95 percent of the total population of the state lives in villages. This indicates that a large majority of scheduled castes continue to live in rural areas as compared to the general population.

The scheduled castes have been backward socially, economically and educationally. For quite a long time they have been subjected to various forms of social and economic exploitation. The Constitution of India, therefore, extended protection and safeguards for the scheduled castes either specially or by way of general rights of citizens for maintaining and promoting their educational and economic interest and removing certain social disabilities. The Constitution has provided in Article 46, as one of the Directive Principles, that the state shall promote with special care the educational and economic interest of the scheduled castes and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. Since the traditional social structure of the state of Rajasthan created discrimination and the scheduled castes suffered from various forms of exploitation for centuries, the Government of Rajasthan took necessary steps to ameliorate the lot of these suffering people. Of these steps education is considered to be a very important one. Therefore, during the last thirty years a portion of the state's resources has been diverted to provide concessions and incentives to educational institutions for scheduled caste students at school stage to improve their educational standard.

Concessions and incentives to educational institutions for scheduled castes is one of the major educational reforms introduced in the system of education after independence in Rajasthan. This educational reform actually originated nearly a century ago. The educational facilities and opportunities for scheduled castes, until nearly a century ago, was negligible than that of general population in Rajasthan. The first Harijan School was opened in the State of Jaipur in 1923. Later on efforts were made by some philanthropists, voluntary organisations and the Rajputana Harijan Sevak Sangh. Due to the efforts of these agencies, new primary schools were opened for scheduled castes. These agencies provided free writing and reading material to a few scheduled caste students. They also helped SC students to secure admission in other schools. But all these efforts achieved little in the area of education for scheduled castes at school stage in the various states of Rajputana.

After independence, the Government of Rajasthan undertook one of the major programmes related to educational upliftment of scheduled castes. Under this programme, special concessions and incentives are provided to educational institutions for scheduled caste students at school stage. These concessions and incentives are as follows.

(1) **Scholarships** : Three types of scholarships are awarded to scheduled caste students at the school stage. These are : (a) Special scholarship; (b) Pre-matric scholarship; and (c) Stipends to SC students admitted to industrial training institutes.

(i) *Special Scholarship* : The SC students who are admitted to reputed institutions including public schools are given this scholarship. Students securing 50% or more marks in their previous examination are eligible for it. During 1980-81, an amount of Rs. 3.60 lakhs was spent on this scheme and 104 scheduled caste students benefited from it.

(ii) *Pre-Metric Scholarship* : It is awarded to SC students from classes VI to X. SC students studying in classes VI to VIII get Rs.12.50 per month while SC student studying in classes IX to XI gets Rs.25/- per month. During 1980-81, an amount of Rs. 122.27 lakhs was distributed as pre-matric scholarship among 116,373 scheduled castes students. Stipends are also paid to SC students admitted to ITIs. In industrial training institutes run by the state government, each SC student gets Rs.45/- per month as stipend.

(2) **Hostels** : The Government of Rajasthan opened hostels for SC students. However, there are three types of hostels for SC students depending upon the source of the aid given. There are :

(i) *Government-run SC hostels* : These are government hostels which provide free lodging and boarding, clothes, books, stationery, medical aid, etc., to all the hostelites. During 1980-81, there were 69 SC hostels run by government and 2808 SC students benefited from this facility.

(ii) *SC hostels run by voluntary agencies*: Voluntary agencies run these hostels on grant-in-aid basis to the tune of 90%. During 1980-81, there were 58 such hostels and 2029 SC students were residing in them. The third category of hostels are those which run on contributory basis. Free lodging, light, water and utensil facilities are provided to the hostels. The Social Welfare Department provides part-time work. During 1980-81, there were 27 such hostels for SC students and nearly 425 students were residing in them. In addition to these, the government has opened a few Harijan hostels under the scheme of Bhangi Kaste Mukti for Mehters and Bhangis.

(3) **Freeship and Half-Freeship**: All the SC students at school stage are fully exempted from tuition fee and half of the fee other than the tuition fee. During 1980-81, nearly 5.09 lakhs of SC students benefited by this scheme.

(4) **Reservation of seats in industrial training institutes**: 16 per cent of the total seats are kept reserved for SC students in the government-run industrial training institutes throughout the state. There were 320 SC students in 1976-77 who availed of this facility.

(5) **Free Uniforms and Text books**: All SC students of classes I to III in rural areas are provided with free text-books and uniforms. This incentive is primarily devised to attract more scheduled caste children to schools in rural areas. During 1982-83, nearly 52,000 SC and ST students of classes I and II and 28,000 of class III benefited from this scheme.

Administration and Implementation of Schemes

These schemes are administered and implemented through three departments, namely, (i) Department of Social Welfare, (ii) Department of Education, and (iii) Department of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj. The Department of Social Welfare, Jaipur, is the main coordinating agency dealing with various schemes for providing incentives and concessions to educational institutions for scheduled castes throughout the state. It provides grant for the following schemes: (i) special scholarship; (ii) pre-matric scholarship; and (iii) stipends to SC students admitted to industrial training institutes in Rajasthan. As far as the schemes of special scholarship and pre-matric scholarship are concerned, the Department of Social Welfare merely sanctions the budget. The administration and implementation parts of these schemes lie with the Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education and District Education office. The Directorate of Social Welfare (DSW) administers and implements the schemes of SC hostels, reservation of seats in ITIs and stipends for SC students admitted to ITIs. These two schemes are looked after by two Deputy Directors, namely, (i) Deputy Director for Backward Class and SC/ST hostels and (ii) Deputy Director of Education and Employment. The Directorate of Social Welfare is the main coordinating agency for the state. It provides

grants to Government SC hostels and also provides aid to voluntary bodies which also run hostels for SC students and have educational activities for them. The Deputy Director of Education and Employment is in charge of schemes of reservation and stipends for SC students in ITIs.

The Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education, Bikaner deals with the schemes of freeship, half freeship and special scholarship. All bonafide students of scheduled castes are fully exempted from the payment of tuition fees. They are also provided with an exemption to the extent of fifty percent in respect of fees other than tuition fees in all governmental institutions throughout the state. In this connection, there is a standing order from the Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education to all the Government schools in the state. The administration and implementation of Pre-matric scholarship in the whole state is done by the district education officer at the district level.

The scheme of providing free text books and uniforms to all the scheduled caste students from classes I to III in rural areas is administered by the Development of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj. This scheme is primarily aimed at increasing the enrolment of scheduled caste boys and girls at the elementary stage. From 1982-83 onwards this scheme is implemented at the Samiti level by the concerned Panchayat Samiti in each district. Earlier it used to be looked after by Zilla Parishad at district and Panchayat Samiti level. During 1982-83, 52,000 SC/ST students of class I and II and 28,000 SC/ST students of class III in the rural areas of Rajasthan were benefited by this scheme. The Government of Rajasthan spent nearly Rs. 929.38 lakhs from 1950-51 to 1976-77 for the development of education of scheduled castes through the above schemes. Keeping in view the above incentives and concessions, it is worthwhile to have a look at the present educational level among the scheduled castes in Rajasthan. 15.82 per cent of the total population of the state belonged to scheduled castes in 1971. The literacy percentage among scheduled castes increased from 6.4 in 1961 to 9.1 in 1971. Ajmer had the largest percentage of literacy (19.4) followed by Jaipur (12.4) and Kota (12.4) while Jalore had the lowest percentage of literacy among scheduled castes (3.9). The literacy rate for general population was almost double that of the scheduled castes. The percentage of enrolment of scheduled castes to the total enrolment of all communities was 17.19 in 1977-78. The percentage of enrolment of scheduled castes to total enrolment at primary and middle stage in 1977-78 was 12.28 and 8.91 per cent respectively. Similarly, the percentage of enrolment of scheduled castes to the total enrolment of all communities for secondary/higher secondary was 7.33 only. Thus it can be concluded that the enrolment of general population at primary, middle and secondary/higher secondary stage in 1977-78 was higher by more than four times, three times and twice that of the scheduled castes.

There were only four districts (Tonk, Barmer, Pali and Bundi) where the percentage of enrolment at primary stage was higher than 10% of the total enrolment. Similarly, there were three districts (Jodhpur, Banswara and Dungarpur) where the percentage of enrolment of the SC students at primary stage was less than 5% of the total enrolment.

As regards middle schools there were seven districts (Bundi, Pali, Tonk, Jaipur, Bharatpur, Sawaimadhopur, and Ajmer) where the percentage of enrolment of SC students was more than 10% of the total enrolment. Banswara had the lowest percentage of enrolment of SC students (2.97%) to the total enrolment, followed by Dungarpur (3.21%).

At secondary and higher secondary stage, there were only four districts (Sawaimadhopur, Barmer, Pali and Bundi) where the percentage of enrolment of SC students was more than 10% of the total enrolment. However, there were eight districts where the percentage of enrolment among SC students was less than 6% of the total enrolment.

To get a clearer picture of the gaps, coefficient of equality was calculated for primary, middle and secondary/higher secondary stages. The coefficient of equality for scheduled caste students at primary, middle and secondary/higher secondary stages was 77.62%, 56.32% and 46.33% respectively in 1977-78. In other words, the coefficient of equality decreased as the SC students moved from primary to middle and middle to secondary/higher secondary stages. It is comparatively less at secondary/higher secondary stage than that of primary and middle stages. The coefficient of equality at primary stage was less than 100% in all the districts except Ajmer and Udaipur districts. Nine districts had less coefficient of equality than that of the whole state. The coefficient of equality was the lowest in Ganganagar (52.68%). At the middle stage, most of the districts in Rajasthan had a coefficient of equality either 100% or more than 100%. In fact six districts had a coefficient of equality even less than 50%. Ganganagar had the lowest coefficient of equality (30.80%). Twelve districts had a coefficient of equality less than that of the whole state (50.22%).

The coefficient of equality for secondary/higher secondary stage was highest in Banswara district (110.85%) while it was lowest in Ganganagar district (24.51%). Ten districts had coefficient of equality less than that of the state (46.33%).

Supposing that we are providing equality of opportunity for children belonging to scheduled castes, the coefficient of equality should have been 100 by 1977-78. In other words, the proportion of enrolment of the scheduled castes to total enrolment should be equal to the proportion of population of scheduled castes to the total population and its percentage be equal to 100. However, the coefficient of equality for scheduled castes at primary, middle and secondary/higher secondary stages is less than 100. Actually the coefficient of equality at secondary and higher secondary

stage is even less than 50 per cent. This indicates that scheduled castes are still far behind the general communities with regard to school education. In spite of various schemes to provide incentives and concessions to scheduled caste students at school stage, the situation has not improved remarkably even after three decades. They still remain educationally somewhat backward.

Concessions and incentives to educational institutions for scheduled castes at school stage is one of the major educational reforms in the system of education after independence in Rajasthan as well as in India. This educational reform is aimed at providing an opportunity to the scheduled caste students in Rajasthan to achieve educational equality which had been denied prior to independence. It is an attempt to help scheduled caste students in Rajasthan in attaining equality at school stage in comparison with the general population. There is no doubt that this educational reform has yielded some results at school stages, although the general pace of educational advancement has not been adequate. This is mainly because the efforts and inputs, both in physical and financial terms, have not taken into account the precise nature and magnitude of the difficulties and problems faced by the scheduled castes in the society, and have not systematically sought to come to grips with them in quantitatively and qualitatively adequate measures. The major factors which hindered the implementation of various schemes of concessions and incentives are identified as follows: (i) Lack of funds; (ii) Delay in providing concessions and incentives; (iii) Shortage of staff in the concerned departments; (iv) Cumbersome administrative procedure; (v) Poor organisation of the schemes; (vi) Half-hearted approach; (vii) Inadequate coordination among various departments; (viii) Shortage of SC hostels; (ix) Lethargy in the government office; (x) Lack of awareness among scheduled caste students about these schemes, etc. On account of the above-mentioned deficiencies and difficulties, the educational development of scheduled castes is still far behind that of the other communities. This is so in spite of the efforts made by the Government of Rajasthan during the last three decades. The important question to be answered is: should these incentives and concessions to educational institutions for scheduled castes be discontinued? If not, then how long should these be provided to SC students?

A section of the society is against providing special concessions and incentives to scheduled castes when there are other communities which are equally deprived and poor. They feel that the Government has gone beyond the period stipulated in the Constitution and it keeps on extending it. The rationale that a section of society which has been institutionally deprived for centuries together, need to be provided with institutionalised amenities so that they come on par with the rest of the society is relevant only in terms of certain time dimension. According to them 30 years are long enough for provision of special facilities and it is

high time now that scheduled castes find their feet and compete with the non-scheduled caste members of society peers. Extension of time for an indefinite period will be a reflection on the failure of planning and government in terms of the achievement of their goals. This is partly true also. Hence, the special concessions and incentives, therefore, cannot go on indefinitely. A gradual process of the elimination of special concessions and incentives, privileges and protective measures should constitute the part of planning itself.

However, it would be suicidal to discontinue these special schemes for the improvement of educational standards of the scheduled castes at school stage at this juncture. There is no doubt that still a large number of poor scheduled caste people in Rajasthan are suppressed and exploited economically. They are also the victims of social discrimination. On account of their socio-economic conditions, they live in a state of deprivation. Majority of the scheduled castes in the state form the bulk of agricultural labourers, specially women labourers, and other forms of labour considered low and unclean are also mainly performed by them. The share of the scheduled castes population in Rajasthan among the poorest in rural or urban areas is much higher than that of their total proportion (15.81%) in the total population. The NSS data for 32 round (1977-78) indicated that 55.22% of the scheduled caste households were below the poverty line. Identifying the poorest among poor under the Antyodaya Programme showed that nearly 35% of the Antyodaya families were from scheduled castes. The N.S.S. data also indicated that the monthly *per capita* household expenditure of scheduled castes was Rs.61.23 as against poverty line fixed at Rs.65/- This indicates that the average *per-capita* income of the entire scheduled caste population is below the poverty line. There may be a substantial proportion of families which may not be below the poverty line but are very close to it. Thus, we can safely presume that nearly 70% of the scheduled caste families in Rajasthan are below the poverty line or very close to it. This takes into account earnings from child labour also, apart from the earnings of men and women. In such a situation, the need for pressing into service even the children of the family is felt for getting bare substantial income. It would be completely unrealistic to expect that these families can send their children to school. This is the biggest constraint in the way of educational development of the scheduled castes in Rajasthan. This is true for all the poverty groups of the scheduled castes. In such a situation, it is very necessary that the special schemes of concessions and incentives to the educational institutions for scheduled castes should be continued till such time that scheduled castes are able to compete with others on their own. As said earlier, this extension of time should not be for an indefinite period because it will slow down the whole process. The aim should be to bring SC on par with other communities as early as possible. The

general objective should be that the lag in the educational development of the scheduled castes at various stages of school education is removed and they are brought on par with other communities by 1990, with a view to attaining the goal of equality. In this connection, we have to estimate the number of scheduled castes to be enabled to complete education at different school stages (including adult education) every year. We need to identify the financial, institutional, organisational and other inputs required to achieve the above objectives.

Educational planning for scheduled castes should take all its phases of school stage. This would mean that planning would include education from adult education to the higher secondary stage. Within the existing national policy of education and institutions for implementation, care must be taken for special provisions for scheduled castes with a view to providing them personalized attention.

4

A Century of Tribal Education in Gujarat*

Vidyut Joshi

Introduction

The trend of viewing problems of education in isolation (without relating it with the wider society) is dominant among academicians concerned with education. It is because of this that almost any new project on education comes up with a proposal for some change either in teaching method or in technology or in examination. Most of them talk of changing the structure. Day in and day out any public leader speaking on education speaks that we must change our education system. (Though they hardly spell out details). This happens because of the misplaced emphasis on education put, especially after the introduction of modern-secular education.

Social scientists started taking interest in education mainly after it became a part of planning in post-independence period. They view the relationship between education and society. It is necessary to understand the nature of this relationship in order to arrive at a better understanding of the role of education. Social scientists who have addressed themselves to the issue have expressed different viewpoints. Of course, it is necessary to mention that very few of them have written directly on the nature of this relationship. Even then a perusal of social science literature on education shows three viewpoints. First viewpoint recognises the role of education in and its inherent capacity to bring about change. Most social scientists who have written on education hold this view. The second viewpoint, opposite to the first one, holds that change in or through education system is not possible without prior change in social structure. Not only this viewpoint negates the inherent capacity of education to bring about desired changes but it considers education as a state apparatus. Both these viewpoints are fairly known among the scholars, hence it is not necessary to describe them in detail. As the third viewpoint is recent and less known and the present author wants to make his departure from this viewpoint, it is discussed with necessary details.

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The chief spokesman of this viewpoint are Karuna Ahmed¹ and A.R. Kamat². Prof. Kamat writes, "the educational system, like every other sub-system in the general social framework, acquires in the course of its development a certain autonomy and therefore its own dynamics of development, depending on its own contradictions, as well as contradictions and conflicts in relation to the socio-economic system. It can at times produce serious value conflicts in the system between its different components and values of some components of the system with the ruling values and practices". Thus Prof. Kamat takes a position that though "education is largely conditioned by the socio-economic and political power structure", "it acquires a certain autonomy". Karuna Ahmed distinguishes between the dependent and the autonomous aspects. She writes, "formal education is a social product. Its form is determined by the type of social change which the rest of the society is undergoing. It acts independently of the social structure only through the transmission of knowledge, ideas and values. Therefore there is need to distinguish between what are called structural aspects of change from 'ideational' aspect of change. After all, the role that education plays in social change is crucial in the area of value transmission, attitudes and knowledge. I (K.A.) refer to these as 'ideational' changes. Again, there is need to differentiate between social change which is generated by the politico-economic factors and precedes changes in the educational system, on the one hand, and the change which is generated through education. This will instill realism into the thinking of those who put too much faith in education".

"There is also need to see the contradiction in the role assigned to education. It is expected to transmit the cultural heritage and provide continuity with the past while at the same time building a new social order. The planners and policy makers fail to see that education is very much a part of society and is subject to pressures from other parts.... Besides this conflict is likely to be heightened in a society where private schools, by their very nature, are established to promote sectional interest".

This third viewpoint is a welcome departure from the earlier two viewpoints. One would tend to agree that every system has its own autonomy. But at the same time, it is necessary to distinguish between the autonomy of education and religion on one hand and the autonomy of policy and economy on the other. It is true that germination of an idea in one's thinking is not necessarily dependent on one's socio-economic status. Students of the same socio-economic status studying the same course may provide different intellectual responses and develop different ideas. But this does not mean that "education acts as an independent variable of social change (only) through transmission of knowledge, ideas and values".³ An idea could be autonomous at the level of idea, but when it is employed in order to propagate or bring social change, the idea becomes a part of the total

ideology of that social change. Ideology is a part of the political system. If the idea (and the ideology) through which Karuna Ahmed talks of bringing change is against the ideology of the ruling group, the rulers will view it as something against their interest and will try to regulate the idea and ideology of that change and will bring them to 'order'. Whatever be the ideology of the state, it thinks in terms of maintaining the order. Any idea that wants to bring change in that order is viewed as a threat to their interest and hence the state uses its power and authority to stop such ideas by derecognising schools, by stopping its grants or by using legal apparatus against those who propagate that idea of change.

Karuna Ahmed writes further, "Education can be viewed as a vehicle for introducing a developing society to new needs and expectations and even to the idea of change itself. All this it can do through the transmission of values and by changing the attitudes of the people. In other words, education can help take our society away from the old, and towards the new, it can inspire belief in change, in adaptability and achievement and in rationality".⁴ It is true that education can help take our society away from old (particularly in the phase of transition that we are), but the problem comes about the type of new society. If the officially laid down ideas of the state are of one type of society and education-wallahs want to propagate ideas and inculcate values of a new society which is of another type, the fate of education's dream of bringing a new society will be crushed by the state. Of course, the sociologists of education should also analyse whether the idea put forward by education is really new or it is old wine in a new bottle.

But still one possibility is left open. If the idea, knowledge and attitudes about a new society become part of an alternative ideology and a political movement is led to bring a new society, the role of education will succeed to the extent the political movements succeeded in achieving its goals. The education that tries to bring a 'new' type of change without the help of appropriate political action remains at the level of isolated experiment only.

These points of departure need to be tested.

The Present Paper

The present exercise is a part of the 'Educational Reforms in India—1920-1980', undertaken at the Indian Institute of Education. Centre for Social Studies was asked to study the basic education experiment with reference to tribal education in Gujarat. Earlier I.P. Desai⁵ studied the work of Vedachhi where he said that the change in political context influenced the 'work of Vedachhi'. After that, author of this paper studied the influence of changing political context on educational institutions in a limited field of ashrams/schools of Surat District.⁶ It was in line with these studies that we thought of studying the 'Basic Education Experiments in Tribal Education in Gujarat'. Thus, the present paper views the influence of changing political context on basic education in the field of tribal education in Gujarat.

The study covers a period of one hundred years (1882-1981). In order to view the influence of changing political context on education the entire period is divided into the following four phases : (1) 1882-1920; (2) 1920-1947; (3) 1947-1964 and (4) 1964 onwards.

The scope of the study is only primary education. Its main focus is basic education but it also views other educational efforts for comparison. The study is historical and based entirely on secondary data. There are some gaps because of non-availability of data.

Background

Prior to 1882-83 we hardly find any effort being made to educate tribals by establishing schools in tribal villages. Also, we do not find any records of Gujarat tribals having any institutions, like youth dormitories, to give indigenous education to the tribal children. Neither British rule nor princely states had made any systematic effort to establish schools in tribal villages.

However, some isolated efforts were made by the department of public institution of then Government of Bombay. The report of the Director of Public Instruction (1856-57)⁷ mentions, "Schools for wild tribes, such as the Bheels, of which there are several, not under this Department, founded chiefly by the police authorities. There are three of these schools under the officiating Bheel agent in Khandesh, which have been visited by the Deputy Inspector and reported on. The same general description may be given to them all, the boys were wayward, and given to playing truant. No fee is levied and not much is learnt". On the whole, these early schools do not appear to have succeeded because it was reported in the same year that the attempt "to educate the Bheels must be pronounced as hitherto a failure".

The department does not seem to have established separate schools for tribals. Some schools were opened up in the nearby tribal areas which were utilized more by the non-tribals living there. The department encouraged enrolment of tribal children in common schools and it also tried to prepare tribal teachers and place them in tribal areas. These efforts could bear some fruits as "in 1871-72, 1017 children of these tribals were reported to have been enrolled. In 1881-82 their total enrolment in public school increased still further to 2734 of whom 6 were studying in first grade aided middle schools, 2717 in primary schools (2173 in Government schools and 544 in Inspected schools) and 11 in night schools. Of these 15 were girls-all in primary schools".⁸

State education in Rewakantha was introduced in 1864-65. Prior to that most villages in this part of the Bombay State had their private indigenous schools taught by Brahmins. Only the Brahmin and trading class attached any importance to education, because it helped them in their daily vocation. The other classes of the population were generally indifferent".⁹

After 13 years of the introduction of education in Rewakantha, i.e., in 1878-79 there were 67 government schools which comes to one school for every 52 villages. There were 3448 students in these 67 schools. Of the 3448 pupils 949 (27.5%) were Brahmins, 184 were Kshatriyas, 740 (21.4%) were from Vania, Bhatia and Modhia castes, 55 (4.5%) were Jains, 694 (20.1%) were Kanbis and Kolis, while only 5 were noted as 'Hill tribesmen'. It is relevant to mention here that around 50% of the population of the states of Rewakantha region was that of tribals.

There were indigenous schools in Surat district where a few Dhodia and Chowdhry boys took education. Some of them established 'Bhajan Mandalis' and started reform activities on their own.

Prior to 1882 there are only isolated references where British officers, not the state, took interest in the education of the tribals. One such incident is that of Major W. J. Morris. He writes¹⁰ in his report about education of the Dangis, "the heirs of these chiefs are with their parents, they are being brought up in ignorance and barbarism. Inducement has been held out by me to encourage the parents to send their sons to schools for education but until Government assures appointment of Diwan over these Rajputs into their own hands, nothing can be done with them it may be reasonably expected that in a few years more we shall be able to open the eyes of the Rajputs to the benefit of introducing education amongst their people and to the necessity of throwing aside many of barbarous prejudices which have hitherto related their civilization. I have taken the opportunity of trying to educate those of Dangs Bheels who have been sentenced to confinement of criminal offences, and I have one Dang Rajah who has been also educated. This plainly shows that the Dangs Bheels are as capable as any other race of receiving education".

In Sabarkantha in the "year 1874-75, for the benefits of Bhil students a school was opened at Poshina area of the former Idar State".¹¹

Thus, whatever little information available about the tribal education prior to 1882 indicates that though the state had accepted education as one of its functions and had opened government schools among the non-tribals, the same efforts were not yet extended to tribal areas. Whatever little efforts made by non-tribals to impart and by the tribals to accept education were only individual efforts. They were not the result of the state policy and practice.

PHASE I (1882-1920)

The Context

(1) State's Interest in Forest

British Raj was interested in the rich forest wealth of India because it needed wood very badly, for shipbuilding, creating railway net-work and for several such uses. The early years of shipbuilding and railway expansion

saw an unprecedented assault on the more accessible forests. Great chunks of forest were destroyed to meet the demand for railway sleepers.¹² The magnificent forests of India were being cut by the private enterprise in a reckless and wasteful manner. This alarmed the administration. The crisis was more acute since only three varieties—teak, sal and deodar—were strong enough for use in railway and shipbuilding. It was in order to bring wood cutting to order, stop wastage and systematically exploit the forest resources that the Forest Department was started in 1864. It was not possible to do this task without establishing state's monopoly right over forest. The first attempt towards this was the Indian Forest Act of 1865 which was replaced by a more comprehensive Act in 1878. This sort of monopoly 'right' of the state over forest was in opposition to the customary rights of the forest dwellers on the forest. It was interpreted that the customary use of forest by the villagers was not based on 'right' but on 'privilege' and this 'privilege' was exercised only at the mercy of the local rulers. Since Britishers were now the rulers they became 'owners' of the forest.

The diminution of customary right, forest officials entering the forest and getting a hold over natural resources which were freely enjoyed until now, evoked a sharp reaction from the forest dwellers. There were several revolts by tribals centred around the question of hold over rights. A detailed description of one such Bhil revolt is given in 'Rewakantha Directory' entitled 'Account of an incident which took place in March 1901 showing the lawless character of the Bhils of the Sunth Banswada border.'¹³ A sort of combined feeling of frustration and aggression remained among them even though it might not have turned into revolt in some places. This was a 'law and order' problem for the rulers. Hence the district officers, in charge of law and order, were made to act as arbiters between the forest department and the people. One of the techniques to maintain law and order was to grant some concessions and give minor benefits to local population. Schemes were introduced where some tribals can be accommodated in the administration, especially as beat guards in the forest department. This required minimum literacy on the part of tribals. Hence, in the initial period, schools were started by the forest department.

Forests under some princely states were also brought under the forest department, while rulers like Maharaja of Baroda kept the forests in his territory under his control. But in both the cases, the local princes learned a lesson from the Britishers that forests were an immense source of earning revenue. Thus they also got interested in forest and consequently in forest dwellers. At the same time, princely states also accepted education as one of its functions.

(2) Reform Activities

Outsiders' commercial interest in the forest wealth in the latter half of the 19th century and the state's declaration of the ownership of the forest

and consequent activities increased outside contacts with forest dwellers. It was because of this influence that some tribals felt a need for reform. Some tribals of Surat district started reform activities on their own prior to the Gandhian workers. The Bhagat family of Ghata village in Vyara taluka is a well-known case.¹⁴ A man called 'Ghuriya Gamit' became 'Bhagat' (devotee)* under the influence of a Hindu 'Sanyasi'. The 'Sanyasi' gave him an idol of some Hindu deity. Ghuriya Bhagat built a temple which became a centre of pilgrimage. This family became a centre of reform activities.

We also find similar kind of reform activities carried out by tribals in other parts of Gujarat. In Nandod taluka of Bharuch district several Tadavis became Bhagats under the influence of a Hindu priest called Guru Vishwanath.¹⁵ The reform activities in Panchmahals started under the influence of a Brahmin called Mayaram. The reform movement of indigenous origin called 'Devi Movement' was started among the Bhils of Khandesh which later on came to south Gujarat. Tribals were holding conferences for doing reform activities. The first written record is that of a conference held in Vyara in 1905.¹⁶

Thus around 1882 a small section of tribals had already started coming in contact with the newly emerging forces. Some reacted sharply by revolting while some took the course of reform. Government was naturally interested in reform activity and tribals who believed in reform were going to accept education as a value.

Education (1882-1920)

In this phase three different agencies started schools in tribal areas. They were : (1) the British government, (2) the princely states and (3) religious organisations.

The British government had appointed 'The Indian Education Commission (1882)',¹⁷ which naturally recommended that special efforts must be made to educate tribals. It was during this period (1882-1920) that the tribal education made first major advent with the help of the state. "The total enrolment of tribal students (in the Bombay province), increased from 2734 in 1881-82 to 12,131 in 1921-22. Of these 53 were in secondary schools, 12,038 in primary schools, 22 in training institutions and 18 in other special schools".¹⁸

The Indian Education Commission (1882) had recommended that efforts should be made to train teachers from the tribals themselves.¹⁹ It was with this view that central primary schools were organised and boarding houses were attached to them. The main object of these schools was to

* 'Bhagat' has cultural religious connotation. A tribal who becomes 'Bhagat' becomes teetotaler and vegetarian, wears sacred thread and daily worships some Hindu deity.

train pupils of the scheduled tribes for the P.S.C. (Vernacular Final) examination and then to send them to a training college. Such schools were established in Godsamba (Surat district), Khergam (now Valsad district), Diwa (Bharuch district) and Dohad (the Panchmahals district). These schools proved to be very successful and number of trained teachers belonging to scheduled tribes exceeded their demand by 1921-22. The problem of unemployment arose because of the fact that such trained teachers were appointed only in special schools for tribals only. To solve this problem the government started appointing them in common primary schools.

During this period the government started providing various facilities to the tribal students. It provided free books and slates to all primary students. It also gave some scholarships. "In 1900 A.D. the Collector of Surat made special efforts and admitted tribal students in Mahajan (now Parekh) Craft School in Surat".²⁰ "In 1906-7, 40 tribal students (23 boys and 7 girls) were studying in this school. All the children were provided with lodging and boarding in the school. Boys were taught carpet weaving and dyeing and the girls, embroidery".²¹ This school was run by a private management. The government provided grants. The boarding houses too were awarded a maintenance grant not exceeding Rs.2,000 per annum.

There were several princely states in the tribal areas and these states were under British political agencies. In Rewakantha agency in 1903-4 "the number of schools had risen to 146 of which half the number was in the first class state of Rajpipla... fifteen years later, i.e., 1918 there were 223 schools of all sorts attended by 13,940 pupils. No school fees are charged in the states of Chhota Udepur, Baria, Sunth, Balasinor, Bhadarwa, Jambughoda and Sanjeli ... The administration and control of the schools in the Rajpipla and Baria states have been handed over to the states concerned while all the rest are under the supervision of the Deputy Educational Inspector, Panchmahals".²² "There are no special schools for the aboriginals, but 2192 of this class (in 1918) attend the ordinary schools. 12 teachers of this class are serving in different schools".²³

Princely states, who were not under the British agency, also accepted education as a function of the state. Sayajirao Gaekwad, the ruler of Baroda, made education compulsory in his Amreli region of his state. He took special interest. He moved in the tribal villages of Navsari region. "As a result of this tour he thought of imparting education to these backward tribal people and the first 'Dhanka Vastigruh' (a boarding for the Dhanka tribe) was established in Vyara, Mahuva and Anaval".²⁴ Maharaja of Vansda also started 'Balashram' for tribal boys in Vansda in the first decade of the twentieth century.

Efforts were also made by some Christian and Hindu organisations to establish schools for tribals. "Credit must be given to Christian missionaries for their pioneering efforts to spread education among the tribals. The

American Baptist Mission established its first Centre at Bulsar in February 1895. From there they started a number of activities in nearby areas. The first primary school was established at Ahwa in the year 1905. They got assistance from the political agents. In the year 1913, there were 12 schools and 84 students (in the mission schools in Dangs).²⁵ In the year 1906, in the tribal area of Sabarkantha, "there were four Mission Schools".²⁶ In Surat district Christian Missions started boarding schools at Khergam and Vankal.

Arya Samaj, a Hindu Mission, was not far behind. In 1906, "two new schools for Bhil boys were started at Khalwad and Isri (Sabarkantha) by the Arya Samaj, Himmatnagar. Books, writing material and clothing were supplied free to the students. These schools had 72 pupils on the roll".²⁷ "Vadodara Aryakumar Ashram started a boarding school at Khergam (now Valsad district). When they admitted Kolchas, who had started coming under the influence of Christians and who were considered untouchables, the 'ujaliyats' (non-tribals) opposed this move and antagonized the Dhodias against the Kolchas. Manager Bhulabhai and his colleagues did not give in. Consequently boys of other communities stopped coming and the boarding school closed down. Bhulabhai shifted and reopened the boarding school at Vanzna which could run for four years".²⁸

Whatever little efforts made during this phase to educate tribals make three points very clear : (1) The State had, though reluctantly, accepted that imparting primary education was a duty of the State, and (2) those tribals who got education as a result of the efforts made in the first phase became important agents of education and social change in the second phase. (3) Without naming it as 'basic' education, craft-based education was started by State at several places.

PHASE II (1920-1947)

The Context

There is a remarkable change in the general political scene in this phase. In order to understand the relationship between the political contexts and education, we will first review the changing political scene in this phase.

(1) The British Raj's interest in Tribal Education

The British Raj started spreading its tentacles in the forest clad tribal areas around 1865. It was around 1920 that they had a firm grip over the tribal areas. This appears from various administrative reports (Mahikantha Directory; Rewakantha Directory; Reports of the Director of Public Instruction) because almost all of them were published around 1920. Of course, this firm grip was not smoothly established. They were faced by severe opposition from tribals. Let us see the case of Dangs.²⁹ "In September, 1907 the Bhil outbreak occurred at Ahwa. Some chiefs and

Naiks gathered at Ahwa with bows and arrows. All government servants stationed at Ahwa bolted away. The Bhils caused serious damage to private and government properties at Ahwa". Again on "24th April, 1911 the Bhil chiefs again rose in revolt against the strict enforcement of the provisions of the Indian Forest Act". "Lastly, the chiefs rose in revolt against the British rule in 1914". There were also cases of tribal uprising in other parts of the tribal belt, which were gradually calmed down using various tactics.

Now it was clearly realized that in order to pacify unrest and in order to shift them towards reform activities the tribals must be given education. "Besides it was now being realised that the education of the backward classes can not really be isolated from their social, political and economic status and that the life of these people should be remoulded as a whole".³⁰

After the recommendation of the Education Commission (1882) the British government as well as princely states made initial efforts to educate tribals. "But the people were ignorant, timid and superstitious. Moreover they believed that one who takes education dies early".³¹ It is now in the second phase that the government takes an important political decision. The year 1921 is a landmark in the history of elementary education, as the control of elementary education was transferred to Indian Ministers who were responsible to a legislature with a large majority.³²

The elementary education among the tribals was developing at a lower rate. It was this realization on the part of the British government that State Committee was appointed to inquire into the social, economic and educational conditions of the backward classes. It was because of the recommendations of this committee that the government created a separate department and appointed a special Backward Class Officer as its head in 1931. Several officers were holding liberal and humanitarian views. But the interest of the state in tribal education was more out of the need for 'law and order'.

(2) Freedom Movement Goes to Masses

Prior to Gandhi the Indian National Congress did not have its roots in the masses. In 1922, after the Chauri Chaura incidence, Gandhi asked the Congress workers to go to masses in the villages and take up some constructive activity. Several Gandhian workers followed his advice. Some went to tribal villages. This was for the first time that a political organisation was establishing its roots among the masses with a liberal view of ameliorating their condition by doing some constructive activity and with a radical view of joining them in the freedom struggle. It is because of this that social reformism and political activism go together in 'Gandhian' ideology.

The tribals were suspicious of any non-tribal visiting them. The history of their experience with non-tribals had taught them that non-tribals come to them either to exploit or to cheat. "The non-tribals like forest officers,

Kanabi farmers and Parsi pub-owners were against any social reform among the tribals and they were harassing those tribals who were doing such activities. A group of Gandhian workers went to the tribal area. They went in a weekly meeting of the tribals. Seeing the Ujaliyats in their meeting, the tribals used to stop the proceedings of the meetings. But these were Gandhians, who, they had come to know, were for the social reform activities among them. They allowed the Gandhian workers to attend the meeting and requested for delivering a speech" ³³ Another such incident is that of Thakkarbapa. "During the famines of 1919-20 and 1921-22, Thakkarbapa and Indulal Yagnik, under the instruction of Mahatma Gandhi, worked in the famine stricken areas of Dahod and Zalod talukas. During the relief work, Thakkarbapa was moved by the pitiable conditions of the tribals in this area, realized that educational and welfare activities should be a part of the programme, and decided to settle and work in this area. His aim was to prepare workers locally from the community itself" ³⁴

The tribals were antagonistic to the administration, but they responded favourably to the leadership of Gandhi and call of the Gandhian workers. It was because of this rapport that the tribals of Gujarat and to some extent of Maharashtra participated in the freedom movement. The Quinquennial report of the progress of education in India (1927-32, Vol. II, p.3) mentions that with a rapidly increasing enthusiasm children started coming to schools. A sort of faith in education had developed in the minds of people.

(3) The Experiment of Basic Education

It is necessary to discuss basic education as a context because tribal education in Gujarat in this phase became a synonym for basic education. It so happened that all the Gandhian workers who went in tribal areas were against British rule and hence against the education policy and practice of the British government. In this sense the basic education had political-ideologist connotations.

Gandhi's educational experiments started in 'Kocharab Ashram' (Ahmedabad) around 1913. Gandhi wanted to design an alternative ideology that would help him in leading a movement. Now an ideology of the movement must provide alternatives to all the aspects of the ideology of the establishment. In this sense basic education pattern was an ideological alternative of the prevailing educational pattern

The questions whether basic education was really an alternative educational ideology or not is a matter of debate. It is necessary to express some views on this issue. In order to see whether basic education was really an alternative or not, it is necessary to see the differences and similarities between basic education adopted by the Gandhians and the pattern of education of the Government.

The basic education pattern was different from the other educational experiments (Arya Samaj or Christian Missionary or Prarthana Samaj) in

the sense that unlike them basic education was a part of the political movement. Moreover this political movement had its base among the masses. Basic education succeeded in this phase because the political movement, with which it was linked, succeeded in attaining its goals. Other educational experiments did not get even this much success. Of course, the political movement had a limited goal of changing the rulers. Hence, when that goal was achieved the movement stopped after achieving its goal, the experiment of basic education could not continue further in isolation of the political context.

The basic education was different from the general pattern in terms of certain symbols of Brahminic revivalism. Ashram pattern, Khadi, daily prayer, vegetarianism and teetotalism, emphasis on 'Brahmacharya' limited reform in caste formation with an ideal of maintaining Varna are some examples of these symbols. It is because of these Brahminic values that the pattern of basic education or the 'Ashrami Kelavani' as it came to be known among the tribals, became popular among those tribals who were for reform in tribal society.

It is claimed that the pattern given by Macaulay was general education while basic education was different from it in the sense that the latter was craft-based. Though it must be agreed that the education given by Macaulay was largely a general pattern education, they thought of giving, and did give craft-based education. Lt. Col. F.W. Ferries, Political Agent of Mahikantha agency, writes in his annual report (1897-98): "The root of the evil is in the system of education. It is too literary and not at all practical. It is not possible, I admit, in impecunious states such as are grouped under this agency, to have technical schools or a system of purely technical education, but it is possible to introduce a curriculum that will supply practical education wants of the people. The government standards which are taught in the schools are peculiarly adapted to the preparation of youth who propose to acquire higher education and enter Government service".³⁵ We also know that the Collector of Surat made special efforts to provide craft-based education for tribals at Surat and Godsamba. Thus, as far as idea is concerned, it was not a new idea propounded in basic education. The practice of attaching Khadi as a craft in basic education was new. It was co-terminus with Khadi ('Swadeshi') movement.

Education (1921-1947)

Three types of educational institutions are found working for educating tribals in this phase. They are: (1) Day schools run earlier by the department of public instruction and those by local boards: (2) Boarding schools run by local boards, and (3) Ashram pattern of education run by Gandhian organisations.

Efforts were made by the government to open more schools in tribal areas. In the year 1929 Surat School Board came into existence and the

primary schools were handed over to the board. In the tribal areas of whole of Bombay state it is reported that "the enrolment of pupils from the scheduled tribes increased from 12,131 in 1921-22 to 29,105 in 1936-37. Of these 28,668 (were) in primary schools. The number of special primary schools (day schools) started for these tribes also increased from 117 in 1921-22 to 206 in 1936-37 and their enrolment from 3,360 to 8,856. Besides the central schools (of craft-based Godsamba pattern) also increased and stood at 15 in 1936-37. They continued to do their useful work of preparing the pupils of the scheduled tribes for appointment as teachers in primary schools".³⁶

By its Education Act (1923) the government had decided to hand over the administration of primary schools to district level boards. But because of the problem of financial responsibility, the same was accepted by various boards in 1929 only. The early local boards and school boards were composed of co-opted members. It was after the election of 1938 that the Indian National Congress captured local boards in Gujarat. The Surat local board became a stronghold of Congress. Both the persons who came to power as President of the Surat district local board and as Chairman of the Surat district school board had worked as teachers in ashram schools. The pattern of education in ashram schools was that of basic education. Surat was the ground of freedom movement where people were ready to follow their leaders. It was under such circumstances that the provincial government of Bombay decided to introduce basic education, on experimental level, in Surat district. Surat District School Board first of all converted Godsamba residential school in ashram pattern in 1940. Nineteen general pattern day schools of Bardoli and Valod (a predominantly tribal area) were converted into basic pattern schools. Four schools out of this region but located in Surat district were also converted into basic pattern schools. The basic pattern schools were more affected by political movement while general pattern schools were not affected. During the Quit India movement "from the second week of August of 1942 these schools started getting affected and by the end of second week of September 1942 they were severely affected. As a result, students' presence declined and schools were closed down by the third week of December of 1942".³⁷ "In 1944-45 five basic pattern schools were turned into general schools. This was second phase of ebb. The experiment which started with enthusiasm in 1939 got limited to 9 schools during the four years when Congress was not in power. People got disintegrated. The enthusiasm of teachers trained at Katargam Vardha pattern Centre also waned".³⁸

Apart from turning certain day schools into Vardha pattern schools, Surat district school board also started boarding schools in the tribal area. Some of the 'Dhanka Vastigruh' running in the tribal area of Gaekwad territory were closed down around 1935. Several tribal children were not able to study

for want of school. Hence the opening of free boarding schools was welcomed by the tribals. By the end of this phase (in 1947) there were 19 boarding schools in undivided Surat (now Surat and Valsad) district. By the end of 1952 the number rose to 25. The pattern of education in these boarding schools was basic pattern and the boardings were run on ashram pattern.

The basic education pattern was not introduced in other tribal areas of Gujarat. Hence, the respective local boards were running day schools of general pattern.

Third type of schools was that of ashram schools. As we have seen earlier, the ashrams were the centre of constructive and movement activities. One such constructive activity was education. School in ashram became known as ashram school. Thakkarbapa and Indulal Yagnik started the first ashram school in Mirakhedi, a tribal village in Panchmahal district. Bhil Seva Mandal, a voluntary organisation, was formed to run several constructive activities in Panchmahals.

Around 1922 some Gandhian workers went in the Bardoli area and started ashrams. In 1924 Narhari Parikh and Jugatram Dave went to Sarbhon ashram and started teaching Halpatis. This was the first, and short-lived, ashram school of Surat district. Vedachhi Ashram, the pivotal force of all constructive activities in Surat district was established in 1928. The school in Vedachhi was named as 'Ashram Udyog Shala'. Jugatram Dave, the pivotal force behind Vedachhi, was (and still is) committed to basic education. He writes,³⁹ "The work of education that I did in Sabarmati Ashram and the scheme of education that we adopted in accordance with the local situation, here at Vedachhi was mostly of this basic pattern. The system is now known as 'basic education' and now it is recognised by the people and the state. I had then made up my mind that whatever work of education we do at Vedachhi must be the work of basic education". Thus, some experiments of education were carried out between 1922 and 1936 in Mirakhedi, Sarbhon, Bardoli, Vedachhi and some such other ashrams in tribal areas of Gujarat provided ground material for Vardha conference. The Vardha pattern or the basic education pattern evolved on the basis of such experiences.

Such ashrams were also centres of the freedom movement. Between 1922 and 1936 the role of such ashram schools was not that of imparting literacy. This was considered to be a secondary role. Their main role was to prepare freedom fighters and social workers. The ashrams of Surat district participated in 'No Tax Campaign', 'Dandi March' and 'Salt Satyagraha'. When they were not engaged in programmes of freedom movement, they carried out social work and relief activities. Ashram properties were confiscated and the ashram workers-cum-teachers were arrested.

The boarding schools, established after 1937, were based on ashram school pattern. The teachers selected for such boarding schools had faith in constructive activities, including education, and freedom movement. But in this case it was the institution that participated in freedom movement. The teachers participated in their individual capacity. The day schools of general pattern were not affected.

Thus in this phase there is a change in the political context. Indian National Congress under the leadership of Gandhi, becomes an organisation of mass movement. The Gandhian ideology becomes ideology of the movement. Like any other ideology of the movement, it seeks to provide alternatives in many spheres of life. The basic education is such alternative to the general pattern of education established by the British regime. We have seen in the first phase that the British administration did establish schools and residential schools to impart education to the tribals, and the number of schools and the number of students in such schools were increasing. We have also seen that in the first phase some revivalist Hindu organisations tried to establish their own pattern of education. But their attempts were not that successful as they were not linked with political action. Compared to them, the basic education efforts got more success because they were linked with political movement. But it could not get itself established by replacing the general education pattern. Why? We have to seek the answer in the educational development in the third phase.

PHASE III (1947-1964)

The Context

(1) The Independence and Congress Government

With the achievement of independence, the freedom movement achieves its main goal and the movement comes to an end. The Congress, organisation of the movement in the second phase, becomes an organisation of establishment in the third phase. The goals of reform (and education) are only partially achieved. But there is a sort of enthusiasm among the leaders and the rank of Congress that as the power is with them, they will be able to use it to achieve these goals. Now India declares itself a welfare state wedded to the upliftment and development of the weaker sections of the society. With the change in the political context the terminology of change also changes which indicates qualitative change. Earlier it was 'reform' which was used for the efforts made to change tribal society. 'Reform' is dropped to give way to the term 'development'. Constitution declares scheduled tribes as a special category in need of state help. These are known facts and need no elaboration.

(2) State Policy of Education

A section of Gandhian workers, who were devoted to the constructive work and not to the power, is dilemma. The question among them is, will our government declare basic education as their official policy of education? Will they provide assistance to the institutions working for education of the tribals? Should the basic educational institutions accept state help or help of the people?

The Constitution of India considers the importance of education and accepts the ideals of free and compulsory primary education. Primary education is accepted as a responsibility of the State. But at the same time there is a dilemma whether the basic education pattern should be accepted as a national policy of education or not. The government in principle accepted⁴⁰ the basic education as an instrument of making basic changes in the primary education. In 1955 the government appointed 'Assessment Committee on Basic Education'.⁴¹ The Committee recommended that all schools may be 'oriented to basic education'. It also said that as a first step towards changing all schools to basic education some elements of basic education may be introduced in all the primary schools.

The government of Bombay recognised the role of ashram schools in educating tribals in the pre-Independence period. Such ashrams, as they were opposing government prior to 1947, were not getting grant. Now such ashrams were facing financial problems. The government had to make a special 'Ashram school Scheme—1953', as ashram schools were not in accordance with the rules of grants to the general schools. This scheme was a recognition and promotion to dual education system.

Education (1947-65)

In this phase three types of institutions were established in tribal areas :
1) Day schools; 2) Boarding schools and 3) Ashram schools.

The primary concern of the government was to provide school to every village. Tribal village had lesser ratio of schools per village. The new day schools established in tribal areas were 'oriented to basic education' or schools of basic education. There were only six primary schools in Dangs at the time of its merger with the Bombay State, while in 1960 there were 4,898 students taking education in 160 schools.⁴² In Surat district (then Surat and Valsad) there were 661 schools in the year 1947-48, while there were around 1,900 villages. There were 82,811 students in these day schools out of which 26,489 were either SC or ST students. It must be remembered that only tribals constituted 50% of the total population of the district. In 1963 there were 2,159 villages and 2,103 primary day schools. Thus, there is a progress towards the goal of one school per village. Out of 3,03,913 students, in these schools, 1,71,000 belonged to the SC and ST.⁴³ Above mentioned fact indicates that their ratio of admission matches with their ratio

in general population. This fact is an important landmark. When we have one school per village it is indicative of arrival of a new phase. This happened in Surat district in 1963, while it happened in Dangs in 1970. In other tribal districts it happened between 1963 and 1970. All day schools in Surat and Dangs districts were basic schools.

The other two types of institutions for primary education in this phase were Boarding Schools and Ashram schools. Both were residential schools with free lodging and boarding facilities and both had basic education. The difference was that the boarding schools were either run by local boards (as in the case of Surat district) or run by a voluntary organisations getting grant from social welfare department. While ashram schools were managed mostly by Gandhian type of voluntary organisations.

By the end of 1964 there were 70 ashram schools in the seven tribal districts of Gujarat, each accommodating not more than 120 students. Seeing this limitation, ashram schools cannot solve the problem of literacy. It must be admitted that though ashram schools did little to impart three R's, it did a great service to tribal education in the sense that most of such ashrams, in this phase, were located in such remote areas where there were no day schools. The efforts of the voluntary organisations and teachers were commendable in the sense that they moved in remote tribal villages, collected students and developed attitudes for education among the tribals. Several students who were trained in the basic education pattern of ashram schools became teachers. These teachers had faith in basic education. They carried out basic education work with a sense of responsibility. This happened more in Surat and Panchmahals districts where there is influence of Raniparaj Sewa Sabha (led by Jugatram Dave) and Bhil Sewa Mandal (led by Dahyabhai Naik) respectively.

This was the phase of faith in the government machinery. Those who were concerned with tribal education and concerned with basic education (in most of the cases they were one) thought that the government will provide financial and other facilities and their efforts will succeed.

By the end of this phase tribal education has made better progress than the earlier phase. Tribal literacy, according to 1961 Census, was 11.69%, as against 30.45% literacy in general. This indicates that the establishment of schools in tribal villages has made this much progress possible. But this is not all. At the time of independence rulers and planners thought that the aim of free and compulsory primary education will be achieved, with our planned efforts, within sixteen years. It was also supposed that the tribals will be at par with the non-tribals, and education will play a role of prime mover for their economic development. This did not happen. The question is why it did not happen? Were the targets mere planners' dreams? If so, who set unrealistic targets and on what basis? Were our efforts less than

required? We get somewhat clearer answers to these questions in the fourth and the last phase.

The question about basic education remains. Unfortunately, Gujarat level data on basic education are not available. But the all-India figure⁴⁴ shows that there were 33,730 basic schools in India in 1951 out of which 31,979 were in U.P. only. (Because all schools of U.P. were given the name of basic education schools.) In 1960-61 there were one lakh basic pattern primary schools in the country, which were 21.2% of the total schools. The rise from 33,730 in 1951 to 1,00,000 in 1961 was the result of the special efforts made by the Central Government to implement the recommendations of Assessment Committee on Basic education.

In spite of efforts made by the concerned educationalists, the basic education pattern could not make any success as an alternative education system. Not only that basic education was not yet accepted as a national policy but even the basic education institutions in tribal areas were losing their ground and coming nearer to the general education pattern. By the end of this phase the basic education had lost its popular support among the tribals. Rather than replacing the general pattern, the basic education was becoming a part of general education. Earlier it was, on principle, hesitating in accepting State help. By the end of this phase they were almost dependent on government grant.

According to our observation, though basic education could not replace general pattern education, its culture definitely influenced the tribal development actions. This was not because of the inherent capacity of basic education, but because of the hangover of the movement. But this culture was gradually giving way. Even then one cannot deny the role of basic education institutions in providing workers for voluntary organisations working for tribal development in this phase.

PHASE IV (1964-1981)

The Context

There is a gradual change in the political context. One can debate about the year of this change, but one would agree that the enthusiasm and faith expressed in the political system in terms of helping tribal education to bring them at par with the non-tribals and in helping the cause of basic education was giving way to scepticism in the capacity of the political system itself.

(1) State Education Policy

Kothari Commission does not recommend basic education as a national policy. It does not approve turning all primary schools into basic pattern schools.⁴⁵ The Government of India does not accept basic education as a national policy in this phase. This is a set-back. According to the report

of this Commission, it is necessary to orient basic education programmes according to the changing needs of the people. What are these changing needs?

The changes in the wider society have started influencing tribal society. "The wider society is making more forceful impact on the Adivasi society than in the past. The Adivasi society is also prepared to receive it to-day. What needs to be realised is that the Adivasi society is entering a second and new phase of change".⁴⁶ The change is towards industrialisation and urbanisation. There is no question of going back to village for an educated tribal. His aspirations have changed. This is not fully realized by proponents of basic education. Jugatram Dave, the founder of basic education for tribals in Surat district, complains, "Now time is changed. As a result of this the nature of Khadi workers also was changing. They have become loose in maintaining their devotion to 'ambar charkha' and in wearing cotton clothes produced by themselves. They are interested only in a job as 'ambar charkha' worker"⁴⁷ The same type of complaints have been made by other old time workers also.

(2) Panchayati Raj

Panchayati Raj replaced local boards in Gujarat in 1964. Tribals got proportional representation in tribal districts. Most of the persons who came to power were Gandhian workers. They had sympathy for basic education pattern. But they had no choice to take policy decision in education. The decision of rejection of basic education was already taken at national level. District leaders had to take only administrative decisions. They established more schools. By the end of 1970 Surat, Valsad and Dangs had one school per village. In Surat and Valsad districts every village had schooling facilities within a radius of five kilometres. Similar situation took place in other tribal districts somewhat late.

Education (1965-1981)

Unfortunately 1981 Census data for tribal literacy are not available yet. Even then we can say on the basis of latest available data that there was a rise in tribal literacy in this phase. It was 11.69% in 1961 and 14.12% in 1971. Thus there is a clear rise of 2.43% in tribal literacy. But it must be mentioned that inspite of all the special efforts put by the State, the rise in tribal literacy (2.43%) in Gujarat between 1961 and 1971 was less than the rise in non-SC/ST literacy (6.07%) in the same period. Not only that, there was a fall in tribal literacy in some tribal districts as indicated in the following table.⁴⁸

**State and district literacy,
general and among ST and non-SC/ST (1961-1971)**

| <i>Name of State/ District</i> | <i>Year</i> | <i>General Literacy</i> | <i>S.T. Literacy</i> | <i>Non-SC/ST Literacy</i> |
|---|-------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | | % | % | % |
| Gujarat State | 1961 | 30.45 | 11.69 | 34.24 |
| | 1971 | 35.79 | 14.12 | 40.31 |
| Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 10 years | | + 5.34 | + 2.43 | + 6.07 |
| Surat | 1961 | 34.35 | 14.12 | 55.61 |
| Valsad | 1971 | 38.58 | 17.80 | 60.12 |
| Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 10 years | | + 4.23 | + 3.68 | + 4.51 |
| Bharuch | 1961 | 34.25 | 13.85 | 50.33 |
| | 1971 | 35.73 | 13.83 | 54.19 |
| Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 10 years | | + 1.48 | - 0.02 | + 4.19 |
| Vadodara | 1961 | 35.21 | 11.54 | 59.10 |
| | 1971 | 40.67 | 11.32 | 51.07 |
| Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 10 years | | + 5.46 | - 0.22 | + 11.97 |
| Panchmahals | 1961 | 19.23 | 6.67 | 26.22 |
| | 1971 | 22.82 | 9.16 | 31.93 |
| Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 10 years | | + 3.59 | + 2.49 | + 5.71 |
| Sabarkantha | 1961 | 24.03 | 10.56 | 27.28 |
| | 1971 | 31.14 | 16.51 | 34.75 |
| Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 10 years | | + 7.11 | + 5.95 | + 7.47 |
| The Dangs | 1961 | 9.26 | 6.61 | 43.19 |
| | 1971 | 14.16 | 11.29 | 55.78 |
| Increase (+) or decrease (-) in 10 years | | + 4.90 | + 4.68 | + 12.59 |

During the year 1976-77, in Gujarat, the percentage of enrolment of scheduled tribes to total population was 9.7.⁴⁹ It is necessary to remember here that the population of scheduled tribes in Gujarat is 13.99% to the general population according to 1971 Census.

There are two types of schools : Day schools and residential schools. By the end of 1975, 95% of the tribal villages (above 500 population) had schools. The complaint that tribal children do not attend schools because there are no schools does not hold true. When there is a school in a village and still some school-going children do not attend school it is necessary to explain this problem outside education. There are several studies on who go to schools, but the interest in those who do not go to school is of recent origin.

There are two types of residential schools in tribal areas : Ashram schools and hostels attached schools. "During the last two decades the total number of ashram schools..... for tribals has reached 184" ⁵⁰ "In 1981, there were 265 hostels for boys and 150 hostels for tribal girls; there were, in all, 13,409 boys and 6,978 girls residing in these hostels" ⁵¹ Of course, it is necessary to mention that these inmates do not study only in primary schools, but also in higher standards.

Concluding Remarks

The development of tribal education in general and basic education in particular in the two phases of post-Independence period raises some questions. These questions are raised with reference to the ideal, as laid down in the Constitution and practised by the State, that the 'weaker sections of society' will be given special assistance so that they reach at par with the rest of the society.

Several studies on tribal education have consistently shown that the efforts to raise tribal education at par with the rest of the society is a story of failure. "..... we now have a first-rate educational crisis on our hand several of our major educational objectives have yet remained unrealized and owing to the errors of commission and omission, the stresses and strains within the educational system have simultaneously increased to an even greater extent" ⁵² Those who set the targets and those who tried to achieve them were parts of the same machinery. Then why should this sort of contradiction emerge? Were the targets unrealistic or is it that our education system needs to be changed? Is basic education a real alternative? Will only restructuring education solve our problem? Or as rightly put by J.P. Naik, "a simultaneous effort to transform society and education" ⁵³ is required? Who will do this and how?

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Social Education as an Aspect of Community Development : An Analysis

S. P. Jain

Introduction

Social education in India had been considered as an aspect of development way back in 1920 soon after the First World War, though the emphasis was on literacy. In the year 1937, the adult education programme initiated by popular Ministries in their respective states also added to the cause of social education. The programme thrived well for some time but it received a set-back during the World War Two. After independence, adult education once again received attention of the government with a view to accelerating the education process among masses. Accordingly, a number of steps were taken by the government to promote adult education in the context of the needs and aspirations of people.

In the year 1952, a nationwide programme, namely, Community Development Programme, was launched which was intended to initiate a process of planned change from a traditional way of living. It was considered a method by which people can be assisted to develop themselves on their own capacity and resources, and as a programme for accomplishing the ideological content of self-development. As the approach to the programme was both psychological and educational, an elaborate system of social education to awaken the masses from ignorance, malnutrition and ill health, traditionalism and poverty was included as an important component.

Social education, under the community development programme, aimed "to give to the illiterate adult the minimum knowledge required for a purposeful civil life". It recognised "the right of every individual to develop the resources of mind and improve upon his heritage". In general terms, "social education" aims at education for citizenship and democracy and fostering of social and cultural harmony in the country. It attempts to bring among adults an awareness of their rights and duties, develop in them love for a democratic way of life and pride in their cultural heritage. Social education also implies training in the basic

principles of personal hygiene. It advocates human brotherhood and universal ethics and upholds the dignity of man besides an attempt to diminution of poverty and backwardness.¹ Thus social education implies "an all-comprehensive programme of community uplift through community action".²

Social education was included as one of the most important aspects of the community development programme, which covered as much as 82 per cent of the total population of the country living in rural areas and thereby contribute to the growth of educational process. Ever since the introduction of the programmes, efforts have been made during different Plan-periods to achieve the stated objectives. An analytical survey of the social education programme over the last three decades would go a long way in highlighting the process of educational development in the country, not only as a part of educational reforms but also from the point of view of assessing its impact on a large section of the population, i.e. rural masses.

Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study are:

- I. To analyse the contents of the programmes in the country.
- II. To examine the extent to which the programme has contributed to the growth of educational development,
- III. To identify the factors responsible for the successful implementation of the programme and its impact on lives of the people,
- IV. To identify the factors responsible for the non-implementation of the programme,
- V. To assess its overall performance and
- VI. To suggest specific measures for further improvement.

Methodology

The data for the study have been collected mainly from secondary sources such as official reports, documents and articles.

Concept of Social Education

According to J.P. Naik there are three types of education : (a) formal, (b) incidental and (c) non-formal.³ Formal education is that which is received in schools and other formal institutions and which is generally regarded by people as all-encompassing. Incidental education is that which an individual acquires in the normal process of interaction with family members or society at large. Non-formal education is distinguished from formal education in the sense that it takes place outside the formal education. According to Philip H. Coombs, "Non-formal education is an organised educational activity outside the established formal school system — whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity — that is intended to serve identifiable bearing clinetele and learning objectives."⁴

The education given to children or adults outside the formal school system has been given various names such as adult literacy, adult education, social education, mass education and functional literacy, but connotation of these terms differ from each other. Scholars have, therefore, viewed the terms differently. For example, according to John W. McConnel adult education is that which is offered to those above the usual school leaving age, outside of or in addition to the regular curricula of public and private educational institutions. Generally speaking, any type of formal education which grants a degree, issues a certificate or gives academic credit does not constitute adult education.⁵ This type of education is considered as premedial, continuing, vocational, and liberal.

Functional literacy is integrated with the occupation of the learner and is directly related to the process of development. While literacy only provides access to written communication, functional literacy aims at a more comprehensive training of an illiterate adult, which is related to his wider role both as a producer and as a citizen.⁶

In the words J.P. Naik, "non-formal education does not have a predetermined course or prescribed content. Its constituents emerge and evolve through the interaction between the teacher and the student. Non-formal education aims at the changing outlook of the individual in conformity with his own needs and the needs of the community.

Social education is therefore not a matter of class-room instruction and literacy, but it seeks to develop interest of the individual in the environment and the various aspects of his life and instructs him to perform the normal functions of his life intelligently and efficiently. It is thus essentially a process in which many methods are utilised such as personal and informal contacts, group work, and audio visual aid.

Dynamic Concept and Prospect of Social Education

Outlining the necessity of social education for the growth of Indian society J.P. Naik states that social education in its modern concept today stands for an improved way of living. Gandhiji described social education as "Education for life, through life and throughout life."⁷

Since independence the Planning Commission has characterized social education in the Five Year Plans as the process of actively associating adults with the definition and solution of their problems. It is said that social education is the process of community uplift through community action."⁸

The Fifth National Conference of Indian Adult Education Association, which met in Rewa on Dec. 21-31, 1947 emphasized that adult education must aim at enabling the common man to live a richer life in all its aspects — social, economic, cultural and moral. For this purpose adult education must definitely envisage all adult centres as social centres interested primarily in providing social, recreational and cultural facilities

for the people and must endeavour to develop their power of initiative, judgement and integrity as citizens."⁹ Nanavaty observes that the concept of social education is undergoing a radical change. From literacy to citizenship and to the experience in community living is indeed a rapid change."¹⁰

Emphasising the need and importance of social education Nayak states that it has been fully recognised by all that no country can successfully tackle its manifold problems of social and economic reconstruction unless and until masses are educated to appreciate the government efforts and participate in and cooperate with the government in its development programmes. It is, therefore, essential that mass education programmes must make rapid and effective progress in a country like India, which launches development programmes.

Social education is also inevitable for political purposes. For the preservation of independence, citizens must be educated to exercise their voting right judiciously and to have a constant vigilance on the affairs of the government. Political independence cannot be retained for long if the masses are not educated about their rights, duties, responsibilities and obligations.

From the point of social justice social education is a necessity. In this context, Saiyidain states "the justification for a planned and integrated programme of social education is not merely economic or political, i.e. as an instrument for making people more efficient workers or more intelligent voters. The deep justification for such a programme lies in the fact that the lives of a great majority of our fellowmen and women are poor, barren and unsatisfying, they have access neither to economic security nor to the cultural riches which are man's most valuable heritage. Despite plenty of resources, masses continue to starve both economically and culturally. Great problem of present era is to enrich the lives of ordinary men and women with significance. They must be regarded as full human beings with a capacity possibly latent or united to enter into the Kingdom of mind and the riches of culture with eyes for picture and ears for music and some appreciation of good literature, drama, fine arts and manifestation of beauty in life. A scheme of social education is inevitable to arouse such qualities in the masses."¹¹

Preservation of national culture is another need of social education. Social education programme is mainly meant for the less privileged poor and one of its aims is to bring down culture from the ivory tower within the easy grasp and appreciation of the masses by familiarizing the common man with the best and important aspects of his national culture.

The Planning Commission in the First Five-Year Plan changed its nomenclature from adult education to social education. In doing so, emphasis was laid not only on vocational competency of an individual but also on good citizenship. Defining the concept the Commission pointed

out "the concept of adult education which was mostly confined to literacy was found to be too narrow to be able to meet the various needs of the adults. It was, therefore, widened to include, in addition to literacy, the health, recreation, and home life of the adults, their economic life, and citizenship training, and to denote this, a new concept and term "Social Education" was coined. Social education implies an all-comprehensive programme of community uplift through community action."¹²

Unlike adult education, social education does not refer to any age group. Both the children and the adults come under its scope. As regards the content of education, the denotations and connotations of these two types of education vary inversely.

Yet another concept which is closely related to social education is fundamental education which is concerned with the basic or minimum amount of education. It, however, seeks not only to eradicate illiteracy but also to offset that lack of basic knowledge which breeds disease, lethargy and ignorance about the problems of their immediate environment. It further aims at imparting minimum knowledge and skills which are necessary for day-to-day living and for taking a productive part in the social and economic life of the community with a view to improving its standard of living.

In the Indian context, social education aims at providing education to the adult population for the betterment of their lives and for creating in them an urge for change from traditional to progressive society with faith in them and the future of the country.¹³

The function of adult education or social education in a democracy is to provide every adult citizen with an opportunity for education of the type which he wishes and which he should have for his personal environment, professional advancement and effective participation in social and political life. In order to achieve economic development, social transformation and effective social security in a country, it is imperative to educate its adult citizens to participate in national development programmes willingly, intellectually and efficiently. Adult education is, therefore, utmost essential in a country like India, where a large number of people miss schooling and where the available education does not correspond to the developmental needs. The farmers who plough the soil should understand the nature of the soil in order to be able to adopt new practices and improve upon them. Only persuasion or coercion cannot arrest population growth. For, the people must understand the implication of unchecked increase in population, acquire some knowledge of the laws of life and appreciate individual responsibility in programmes of family planning.

Broadly speaking, social education has two parts. While the first is directed towards individual members of the society, the other is directed towards the society itself. One of the tasks of social education is to fight the characteristic life-denying, fatalistic outlook of Indians and thus pave

the way for the introduction of desirable social changes. Since education of individuals for citizenship is inevitable for the successful working of a democracy, it forms an important constituent element of social education. Healthy recreational and cultural activities are organised for the people to utilize their leisure time and to prevent them from falling a prey to anti-social activities. Social education also imparts knowledge in the rules of hygiene both for the individual and the community. Lessons in first aid and nursing, balanced diet, changes in food habits etc. are taught in social education. Vocational training has also been included in the activities of social education, with the aim to assist the poor to raise their income. In rural areas education in agriculture and cottage industries is being given for the economic progress of the country. The contents of first part of social education are : education for life, remedial and continuing education, education for citizenship, recreational activities, health education and vocational training.

Social education directed towards society, on the other hand, have contents such as promoting social cohesion, education for social changes, building community organisation, and developing social leadership.

SOCIAL EDUCATION IN INDIA — A SURVEY

Social Education Planning

In independent India, the responsibility of social education work was entrusted to Ministry of Education and Ministry of Community Development. Cooperation of other ministries concerned with development programmes was also sought in the implementation of this programme. In the beginning, adult education was confined to urban areas and it was in the hands of voluntary agencies. Also, its specific objectives were not clearly defined. In the initial stages, efforts to expand adult literacy came across two main problems : (a) the number of persons rendered literate were reported incorrectly and (b) many of them again lapsed into illiteracy.¹⁴

At that time adult education was confined to literacy only. In course of time, a wider concept of social education emerged, which includes besides literacy, health, recreation and home life, some knowledge of civics, training in simple crafts and citizenship. This formed the basis of social education programmes during the First Five-Year Plan.

With the inception of planning in India various aspects of development such as health, agriculture, education got momentum. Social education also received attention from the planners and policy-makers. Consequently, various programmes were initiated and literacy centres, community centres, libraries, and Janta Colleges were established. A national Fundamental Education Centre for Research and Training was also set up and Departments of Social Education in a number of states were strengthened. During the decade 1931-41, the proportion of literate population was only 16.6 per cent. Even if children below 10 years

were excluded, the proportion rose to 20 per cent only. Apart from the low percentage of literacy, there was serious disparity in literacy between men (24.9 per cent) and women (7.9 per cent) and between the urban population (34.6 per cent) and the rural population (12.1 per cent).

During the Second Plan period, facilities for continuation classes and social education classes were made available at various levels. State governments were made responsible for opening of literacy and Social Education Centres, training of Social Education Organisers and workers, libraries, publication of literature, audio visual education and establishment of Janta Colleges. During this plan period, Rs. 15 crores were spent on social education.¹⁵

During the Third Five-Year Plan, it was accepted by all that in a democratic set-up the success of planned development, which encompasses the needs of millions of people, depends on the spread of social education and a progressive outlook and the growth of a sense of shared citizenship. Therefore, the task of social education was assigned to democratically constituted Panchayati Raj institutions at the district, block and village levels.

The Ministry of Education took up the responsibility of production of literature for nonliterates and assistance to voluntary organisations in the field of social education and expansion of library facilities. The different states, in their educational plans, also made provision for libraries, and evening classes for adult schools and other schemes for promoting adult literacy. During the Plan, Rs. 25 crores were allocated for social education, but actual expenditure on this item was only 19 crores.

During the Plan a massive programme of social education and adult literacy was launched, in which cooperation of different categories of functionaries engaged in education in community development was sought. For the success of the programme, all available resources were pooled, the voluntary workers and organisations were mobilised and the adult education and literacy work at the block and village levels was developed. The broad aim of the programme was that wherever a group of persons desire to attain literacy, the requisite facilities of teachers and teaching material should be made readily available. A large number of institutions were involved in this effort and in some places individual teachers were given some honorarium. In this effort, cooperation was also sought from village panchayats. The task of placing the facilities needed at the service of local communities was entrusted to Social Education Organiser, Block Development Officer and educational institutions. The Panchayat Samities, village panchayats and voluntary organisations were made responsible to create and maintain popular enthusiasms and develop adult education and literacy on a continuing basis in a manner related to their own needs and conditions. At every step, help of local leader, the teacher and voluntary worker was taken for the expansion of literacy both among men and among women.¹⁶

During the Fourth Five-Year Plan, assistance from the industry and from students working under the National Service Scheme was sought for the development of the programme. Voluntary organisations were given financial assistance and technical guidance to help in social education programme. During the plan period, the programme of Farmers Education and Functional Literacy in high-yielding varieties was launched in 80 districts.¹⁷ This programme could not get the desired success because of drawbacks such as improper selection of the district for launching programme, lack of adequate staff, particularly in 21 districts out of 80 where the programme had been started, lack of cooperation and effort by district level officers. Consequently, a limited number of farmers could be trained under the programme and each farmer could receive training once only after three or four years.¹⁸

During Fifth Plan period, efforts were made to link adult literacy with other development programmes such as primary education, health, family planning, agriculture and cooperation and emphasis was laid on publication of books. As functioning of libraries which had been established at District, Block and village levels earlier was found to be unsatisfactory, efforts were made to bring about improvement in libraries.

Since the success of development programme depends upon the literacy and functional skill and social awareness of adults, who take decisions in important matters, particularly in villages, due attention was paid to propagate adult education programme. In order to enable masses to derive benefit from development schemes, to contribute to economic development, to bring about socio-economic changes, and to help in the progress of the country, a comprehensive programme of Non-formal Education for Adults was started during the Fifth Five-Year Plan in 1975.

During the Sixth Plan, special attention has been given to the weaker sections such as scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, agricultural labourers, slum dwellers, and people living in drought-prone areas. Efforts have been made to provide basic literacy skill, to upgrade the functional skill and to create social consciousness among the illiterate masses. It is expected that all adult men and women will be more conscious of their rights and responsibilities and they will be able to achieve economic viability.¹⁹

Administrative Organization

The largest agency for the implementation of social education programme is Government of India, which carries out the programme directly through different Ministries and other agencies and institutions. The Union Ministry of Education is responsible for coordinating programme, providing supportive services and conducting pilot projects, which are of importance to the programme of social education in the

country as a whole. The National Fundamental Education Centre established in 1956 under the Ministry of Education was expected to (a) conduct training course for district officers in-charge of social education, (b) carry out research and evaluation studies in the field of adult literacy and social education, (c) cooperate with those engaged in similar work, (d) produces films, filmstrips, literacy kits, and non-project audiovisual aids for adult literacy and social education in collaboration with National Institute of Audio Visual Education, and (e) organise extension services and seminars etc. Besides, a Social Education Unit has also been functioning under the Ministry of Education since 1948 to coordinate social education programmes, to provide supporting services like training of key personnel employed by the state governments and Union Territories for literacy and social education schemes and other related programmes, to provide grant to voluntary organisations, to run pilot projects for adult literacy and to take steps to help development of library services etc.

The Department of Community Development and Panchayati Raj established in 1956 under the Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development and Cooperation is mainly responsible for social education programmes for making the adult literate. Towards this end, reading rooms, libraries, adult literacy centres, social education centres and some other related work with social education have been established at Lucknow, Gauhati, Gandhigram, Srineketan, Udaipur, Nilokheri, Coimbatore, Kasturbagram, Naini, Baroda, Bhuwaneshwar etc. The main functions of these centres are : to train Social Education Organisers and Mukhya Sevikas working in Community Development Blocks, to organise orientation programmes in community development for teacher educators of teachers training schools and colleges. Thus, the main activities of these centres are to organise job and refresher courses for ultra Social Education Organisers and Mukhya Sevikas and orientation courses in social education for teacher educators.

The needed assistance and cooperation is sought from the concerned ministries and various organisations at national and state levels. For example, the Central Social Welfare Board organizes social education for women. The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, through its All India Radio, the Films Division and Publication Division brings out adult education material. The Ministry of Health, through the centre of Health Education Bureau, covers a wide range of social education. The Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the Khadi and Village Industries Commission and Handicrafts is engaged in occupational training of adults. Thus while the Central Government provides supporting services and coordinates the programmes, field programme has been entrusted to the State Governments.

The function and responsibilities of social education work has been assigned, at the central level, to the Ministry of Education to take up the responsibility of pilot projects only. The erstwhile Ministry of Community

Development had been controlling programme of social education in the development blocks, and running social education organisers training centres. Since the programme of social education undertaken by Ministry of Community Development emphasized on functional aspects, the component of literacy in social education, which is essential for other kinds of education, did not receive the desired attention. Moreover, the Social Education Organiser worked within the framework of Panchayati Raj bodies, viz. Panchayat Samities at the block level, which had a committee for education and social education. At the higher level, the Zilla Parishad performed an advisory function in all development work in districts, but this institution could not bring about any improvement in social education work.

At the Central level, there are three advisory bodies to advise in the field of social education:

- (i) The Central Advisory Board of Education which tenders its advice to Ministry of Education.
- (ii) The Annual Development Commissioner's conference which advised the erstwhile Ministry of Community Development, and
- (iii) Directors of Social Education Organiser's Training centres, who meet annually and offer advice to the Ministry of Community Development from time to time.

At the state level, Social Education Departments have been established to control work in the development blocks. A number of states do not have Social Education Officers in the state education departments. In some states like Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa and Rajasthan, state-level Social Education Officers have been made responsible for development departments. In West Bengal and some of the Union Territories, the education departments are fully in control of social education. Since there are no state level Social Education Officers in all the states exclusively for social education work, the pace of social education programme has been rather slow.

At the district level, selected officers in charge of social education have been appointed. They are responsible for technical programmes. Their number and area of operation vary from state to state. In 1964, only in five states, viz. Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, and West Bengal, there were district social education officers. The states of Bihar and Madhya Pradesh had Social Education Organisers at the divisional level in addition to district social education officers for each district.

There is no district Social Education Officer in the states of Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, and U.P. In Kerala, there is regional officer of social education. The state of Punjab had four circle social education organisers.

At the block level, Social Education Organiser is the key functionary for the implementation of programme of social education. The job of

social education organiser is to organise literacy centres, post-literacy centres, mahila samities, youth clubs, farmers' clubs, and such other occupational groups, community centres, libraries, and reading rooms, radio listening groups, cultural and recreational activities, exhibitions, games and sports. He is also expected to promote local leadership in villages.

The role of Social Education Organiser varies from state to state and also remote from the concept of social education.²⁰ For example, the post of the SEO was combined with the Extension Office Panchayat in the states of Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. In Kerala, the Social Education Organiser looks after nursery schools, orphanages and schools for the handicapped. In Tamil Nadu, the Social Education Organisers devote eighty per cent of their time to primary school work.

Each block is expected to have two Social Education Organisers : a man and a woman.²¹ The number of Social Education Organisers and Mukhya Sevikas always remains short of the prescribed requirement. It is evident from the fact that by March 31, 1962 there should have been 5,785 Social Education Organisers and 3,360 Mukhya Sevikas in office as against only 4392 social education organisers and 2,661 Mukhya Sevikas. Thus there was a shortage of 13.4 per cent for Social Education Organisers and 32.4 per cent for Mukhya Sevikas. The shortage was conspicuous mainly in the states of Karnataka, Kerala, Bihar and Maharashtra. In case of Mukhya Sevikas, shortage was noticed in Bihar, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Orissa. For some years, in the beginning of Social Education Programme, there was not a single Mukhya Sevika in the state of Jammu and Kashmir.

(a) Community Centres

With the beginning of community development programme in 1952, the community centres came into being which were supposed to be the 'hub' of community life. These centres were run by the Block and Voluntary agencies with financial assistance from the Central Social Welfare Board. They were envisaged as the focal points from which social education activities will emanate and provide a meeting place for different types of social, educational and other activities concerned with village life. It provides facilities for children, youth and adults to relax in an atmosphere of friendliness, which helps people to develop their latent abilities, and create a sense of partnership in the community. Thus they develop a sense of social responsibility for the welfare of the community. Generally, these centres were located in school buildings, dharamshalas, panchayat ghars and also in separate buildings of their own. In 1958, as many as 14458 community centres had been started at places other than the school buildings. On the whole, 4974 centres were functioning in school buildings. The main activities of the community centres were Youth Clubs, Women's Organisations, reading rooms and libraries,

bhajan mandalis, and the organisation of radio listening groups. In order to promote such centres the community development blocks provided free of cost or on subsidised charge, some articles such as newspapers, periodicals, sports materials, musical instruments, radio sets, stage curtains and furniture etc.

The task of establishing community centres was assigned to Village Level workers under the overall supervision of Social Education Organisers. It has, however, been observed that the social education organiser and the village level worker could not be effective in this task because they had to work in several villages and have no time to establish intimate contacts with various groups in a village for promoting community centre activities.²²

One of the major activities of the Block was to establish youth clubs and Mahila Mandals in villages so that these groups may be provided opportunities to associate themselves with constructive activities in the community.

Progress of the programme of social education can be assessed on the basis of the membership of youth clubs and mahila samities and a number of community centres. The membership was 10,08,000 for 5400 youth clubs and 638,000 for 25,200 mahila samities. On an average, membership of clubs per block was 356 youth and 218 women, one youth club for every 5 villages, and one mahila samity for every 11 villages.

According to the strategy of social education programme, mahila samities and youth clubs are expected to take part in non-literacy aspect of social education such as relinquishing of outmoded customs, acquisition of new social and economic outlook, streamlining of the life of millions of village families, enabling people to take collective decisions for uplifting their communities. Yuvak and Mahila Mandals have also been associated with the production of nutritious food and demonstration feeding programmes for the vulnerable section of the community.

(b) Voluntary Organisations

Among the non-governmental agencies, the Bombay City Social Education Committee, the Mysore State Adult Education Council, the Indian Adult Education Association, Bharat Sevak Samaj, some social educational committees for other cities in Maharashtra and Gujarat, and a number of voluntary organisations in West Bengal are engaged in social education activities.²³ Among the most successful organizations, the Ram Krishna Mission has done outstanding work. The Literacy House (Lucknow), the Adult Education Association, Calcutta, the Social Service League, Bombay, the Seva Sadan, Poona, All India Mass Education Society, Gonda, have also done useful work.

(c) Academic Agencies

In the field of adult education, correspondence courses have been started in the Delhi University. As many as 66 adult literacy centres are

being run by Delhi University. Now Adult Education unit under the Ministry of Education is working which organises workshops. The Janki Devi Degree College of Delhi University has started projects, which include one year course in cutting and tailoring for poor girls, one year course on secretarial work, one year course in tailoring in village Maipur, and a two year course for such girls who could not continue education after passing middle class. The University of Rajasthan has established the first department of adult education at Jaipur. Similarly Lok Shiksha Sansthan started orientation-cum-training programme. Gorakhpur University has also established a unit for adult education, which runs literacy centres.

Expenditure on Social Education

The financial resources for social education fall under three heads :

- (i) The funds provided under the Five Year Plan for social education scheme implemented by the Ministry of Education,
- (ii) Funds provided under the Five Year Plan for schemes administered by state education department,
- (iii) Funds provided for social education under the community developments programmes.

As consolidated figures show, expenditure on social education in the First, Second and Third Five Year Plans was of the order of Rs. 5 crores, 15 crores and 25 crores. During Fourth and Fifth Plans, the expenditure on social education was Rs.4.5 crores and 35 crores respectively.²⁴The overall allocation to education is 2523.74 crores as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1
Sixth Plan Outlay for Education & Culture

| | (Rs. in crores) |
|---|-----------------|
| 1. Early Childhood & Elementary Edn. | 905.00 |
| 2. Secondary Edn. | 398.00 |
| 3. Teacher Edn. | 22.00 |
| 4. University & Higher Edn. | 485.75 |
| 5. Adult Edn. | 128.00 |
| 6. Physical Ed., sports, games & youth welfare. | 93.54 |
| 7. Other programmes : Sub-total | |
| General Edn. | 2162.00 |
| 8. Art & Culture. | 83.90 |
| 9. Technical Ed. | 277.61 |
| Total | 2523.74 |

EDUCATION, SOCIAL EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT-A PERSPECTIVE

Education

The primary aim of education in a constructively peaceful yet revolutionary society is to promote the basic values of democracy and help in development of what John Dewey has called 'the ever-perfecting, the ever-maturing society'. Freedom has to be conditioned by discipline, equality by increased production and fraternity by justice. The specific function of education is to transmit values and technology to the younger generation which must release the gains of culture and civilisation as also to enable the adults to clarify their own goals and lines of action in relation to emergent problems.

Existing Framework and Progress

The following table gives a general picture of provisions for education in the Five Year Plans.

| | | Plan Provisions (Rs. Crores) | | | | |
|----------------------|--|---------------------------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | 4th | 5th |
| 1. | Elementary Education | 85 | 87 | 201 | 235 | 1,030 |
| 2. | Secondary Education | 20 | 48 | 88 | 118 | 300 |
| 3. | University Education | 14 | 45 | 82 | 185 | 370 |
| 4. | Others : Soc. Ed., Tech. Ed. & Youth Education | 14 | 24 | 29 | 142 | 550 |
| 5. | Cultural Prog. | — | 4 | 10 | 12 | 25 |
| Total | | 133 | 108 | 418 | 697 | 2,250 |
| Total Plan Provision | | 3,360 | 6,750 | 10,400 | 24,800 | 53,000 |
| Percentage | | 4% | 3.2% | 4.0% | 2.4% | 4% |

Elementary Education

The Constitution of India envisaged the provision of free, universal and compulsory education for children of ages 6-14 years. It was agreed to aim at 6-11 age group in 2nd and 3rd Plans and later take up 11-14 age group in fourth and fifth Plans for 100% coverage. It was expected that this would be achieved only by 1981. Legislation for compulsory primary education has been passed in A.P., Assam, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore, Punjab, Rajasthan, West Bengal and Delhi. Due to the following problems, the targets could not be achieved :

- (i) Insufficient number of girls coming for education.
- (ii) Extreme backwardness of certain areas and sections of population.

- (iii) Wastage, i.e. a good number being withdrawn by parents early.
- (iv) Stagnation, i.e. failures.

Disparities continue to exist among the States and within States among the districts (and blocks) in the enrolment of children in elementary school classes. An estimate of the likely enrolment in 1974 indicates that the percentage of children enrolled in classes I-V will be substantially below the all-India level of achievement in Assam, Rajasthan, Bihar, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Tripura and West Bengal. As for classes VI-VIII, most of the States have to make up a large headway, particularly Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. Within States, educational facilities are not evenly spread. In fact, the disparities are, at times, sharper within the States than they are among the States.

Elementary Education Under National Programme for Minimum Needs in the Fifth Plan

The Constitutional directive according to which children upto the age of 14 should be provided with free and compulsory education within a period of 10 years of the commencement of the Constitution has not been carried out fully. For example, the likely enrolment at the end of the Fourth Plan was to be 88 per cent in the age-group 6-11 and 40 per cent in the age group 11-14. There are wide regional disparities in aggregate enrolment. Enrolment of girls is particularly uneven as between different States. In the Fifth Plan, it should be possible to provide 100 per cent—50 per cent on the full time basis and 10 per cent on part time basis for the age group 11-14. Inter-regional inequalities would be narrowed down but would still remain, especially in regard to girls, where in addition to economic constraints, there are social inhibitions. Special measures will, therefore, be needed for tackling these difficulties and for stepping up enrolment to acceptable levels. In the reduced wastage full coverage in respect of boys and a big step up in the case of girls could be achieved by the end of Sixth Plan.

Secondary Education

There has been considerable expansion of facilities for secondary education over the years; the enrolment of boys has increased six-fold and that of girls thirteen-fold between 1951 and 1974. Although the gap between the education of boys and girls has been considerably narrowed — because of the faster rate of growth in the enrolment of girls — the latter still constitute only a little over a quarter of the enrolment in secondary schools. Enrolment in classes IX-XI, as a percentage of the population in the age-group 14-17, is expected to rise from 19.3 in 1969 to 23.5 in 1974 for both boys and girls taken together, from 28.5 per cent to 33.8 in the case of boys and from 9.8 to 13.0 in the case of girls. There is

likely to be a shortfall of about 6-7 lakhs in the enrolment targets, most of it in respect of boys (4-5 lakhs). The disparity between and within the States continues to persist; the enrolment of girls is particularly low in the States of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Manipur, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh and the Union Territory of Arunachal Pradesh. The low enrolment of girls adversely affects nation's development programmes, particularly the programme of universalisation of elementary education because a sufficient number of qualified women do not become available for work as teachers.

Equalisation of Educational Opportunities

The Education Commission had placed considerable emphasis on equalising educational opportunities between advanced and backward classes. The Commission recommended evolution of more reliable and egalitarian methods of selection for admission as well as award of scholarships to overcome gross inequalities arising from differences in home environments. It recommended that special attention should be paid to children from the under-privileged groups and day-study centres or boarding houses provided.

The Commission recommended dispersing educational institutions in rural areas, consistent with economy and efficiency, instituting an adequate scholarship programme, providing hostel facilities and making suitable transport arrangements. It also recommended a progressive abolition of fees, provision of free textbooks and stationery, school meals and uniforms.

The Commission adds: "Like all ideals in life, perfect equality of educational facility is probably unattainable. In such matters, however, the essence of the problem is not the attainment of the goal, but the impassioned faith and earnest striving."²⁶

The problem of equalisation of opportunities has, however, to be analysed a little more deeply. More provision of mid-day meals or free supply of text-books would induce only the parents of particular income-group who can afford to forego the present gains in favour of long-term gain in rise in productivity. The parents below this economic level, however, would have to be given additional financial incentives for sending their children for education so as to compensate them at least in part for immediate reduction of their meagre incomes.

Wastage and Stagnation

Another dimension of equalisation of educational opportunities is that of wastage and stagnation. This problem has been receiving serious attention of the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare. A recent study²⁷ on this problem by the National Council of Education Research and Training has estimated that the total rate of wastage and stagnation is 65.30% by the time children reach grade V and 75.35% by the time they

reach grade VIII and that this rate has remained constant during the past 10-12 years. Some of the main causes are lower qualifications and *per capita* incomes of teachers, absence of co-curricular activities, higher teacher-pupil ratio, economically backward family conditions and personality factors. It has recommended that efforts to reduce wastage and stagnation should be concentrated at grades I and II and that they should be trained and sensitised to look out for irregular attendance and low performance and take necessary action. Already, some states have initiated action to reduce wastage and stagnation. Similar conclusions have been drawn in a study carried out by J.S. Mathur and S.P. Jain.²⁸

Adult Literacy and Social Education

Literacy has increased from 17% in 1951 to 29% in 1971 although the number of illiterates increased from 333.6 million to 387 million in the same period. An effort was made in the Plans under education and community development programmes. Social education which was supposed to be in the vanguard of the community development programme suffered heavily because of lack of understanding of its basic dynamics. The Social Education Organizer thus became the fifth wheel in the coach and his services were misutilised.

Role of Panchayati Raj in Education Including Social Education

Most of the states which have introduced Panchayati Raj have entrusted education and social education to these bodies. The details have been given in Annexure "A". It would be evident that while technical control over standards of education has remained with the Education Department at the state level, finances and administration have been transferred to Panchayati Raj bodies. As a matter of fact, the Mehta Committee had recommended the following in respect of social education programme.²⁹

- (1) The aim of social education should be : (a) to acquaint people with the meaning of citizenship and the way democracy functions; (b) to induce citizens to learn how to read and write; and (c) to impart proper training for refinement of emotions; (d) to instil a spirit of toleration among citizens.
- (2) The services of Social Education Organiser (S.E.O.) should also be utilized in developing public opinion against existing social evils.
- (3) Specialist staff at the district and state levels may be provided to render guidance to S.E.Os and a separate section under the Joint Director of Social Education opened in the department of education.
- (4) The S.E.O. deserves to be assigned a definite position in the education department.

- (5) There should be close contacts between S.E.O. and the gram sewak who should take keen interest in all social education activities.
- (6) The teachers to be utilised in programmes of social education should be given two months' training in methods of extension and principles of social education etc. Such teachers should be given monthly allowance for their work in this field.
- (7) Village teachers may be utilised by S.E.Os in their programme of work.
- (8) Village leaders should be enlisted in the efforts to impart social education.
- (9) The S.E.O. should identify potential village leaders and assist them in accepting the responsibilities of leadership for improving community life.
- (10) The use of the 'leader' and 'leadership' may be avoided.
- (11) S.E.O. should seek cooperation of members of cooperative societies and help progressive villagers to join them, where they do not exist.
- (12) Village teachers or panchayat secretary, where paid, may be utilised after proper training in initiating new activities at the centre, so that the interest of villagers is sustained.
- (13) Vikas melas, shifirs, or training camps for villagers, campaigns or drives for different activities may be utilised as supplementary activities requiring day-to-day participation by the villagers.
- (14) S.E.Os should pay increasing attention to youth clubs and encourage village youths to participate in specific projects of work.
- (15) Project activities should be evolved according to the genius of the area; activities in which people themselves have initiative should receive greater emphasis.
- (16) Cultural teachers and reformers may be utilised in educating the masses.
- (17) Suitable books should be prepared for village adults and proper methods of teaching evolved and imparted to the village teachers.
- (18) Literacy programme should be drawn up separately for men and women after a preliminary survey of adult illiterates, and camp and intensive drives organised extensively in all blocks.
- (19) Lest neo-literates relapse into illiteracy follow-up programme should be worked out.
- (20) Circulating libraries of suitable films should be maintained by the states. Each S.E.O. should have a projector and a regular flow of

films and know how to operate a projector. Subsidised radio sets should be provided to the villagers.

- (21) Village leaders should be asked to broadcast talks; discussions during rural camps etc. recorded and broadcast.

Social Situation in Rural India — An Assessment

In India, where so much needs to be done in so many places and in so many directions, all as quickly as possible, there have naturally been controversial issues about policies and programmes. Social education in rural development is, therefore, not exempt from criticism, sometimes made light-heartedly but rarely well-informed. It was assumed from the beginning of rural development planning in India during the early fifties that the potential of the rural masses to contribute to their own local areas and their country's development was probably the greatest undeveloped natural resources of the nation, and that this source could and would, be developed by community development methods. A large number of village level workers (about 10 in each of 5628 blocks) were trained in these methods and posted to local areas. Two social education organisers, one male and one female, whose assigned role was that of community organisation, were also posted in each block. Right from the start, India's rural development programme, the greatest planned programme of this type in the world, was aimed at the establishment of a suitable organisation to ensure participation of the villagers at the planning as well as at the execution stage. This was the keynote or the essence of the whole temper of the movement of community development. While administrative policies and procedures had to give dominance to setting and achieving physical targets, everyone concerned with the programme at all levels was convinced that it was the development of the people's competence and village institutions that was the ultimate objective of such a gigantic programme of rural development.

Social Education

It was with such considerations that the most controversial of all the block specialists, the social education personnel, found their place in the movement. The very fact that they were injected into the system was significant because it revealed the conviction that the programme could be made a people's programme with the help of adult education (in the broader sense of the term methods and techniques). Special centres for training these functionaries were established under the auspices of some autonomous institutions whose traditions could inspire these workers. These new type of block-extension specialists were, in fact, specialists in social organisation, human relations and extension methods. More important responsibilities of these pace setters in rural adult education in India were promoting and strengthening village institutes such as youth and women's organisations, enlisting cooperation of school teachers in

community development, organising short training programmes for local leaders and assisting all the other members of the block team who were subject-matter specialists increasing their competence to assist village people in the successful working of their own organisations and institutions. This was the comprehension of social education in the community development programme at the grass-roots.

Situational Analysis

The position regarding rural social education in India today is that it is at a very low ebb. Even the morale of the community development enterprise, in fact, is rather depressing. The infrastructure, in terms of the block organisation and administrative machinery reaching right up to the remotest corner of the countryside built up with great effort, stands solidly as the achievement of the past two decades. Panchayati Raj institutions from the village to the district levels have come into being in almost all parts of the country. These are people's organisations, statutory in character. Besides, there exist about 200,000 youth and women's organisations in the villages, having a membership of about five million village youths and women. Many of these village associate (voluntary) organisations, which are in a way the outcome of social education work in rural areas, have members who were exposed to some kind of short training course at some time or another. There is no federation of these organisations at any level.

Social education in rural areas is actually a State subject. The Central Government has an advisory and promoting role. Certain activities such as training of youth, orientation of school teachers in community development, training of associate women workers, incentive awards to youth and women's organisations, organisation of assemblies of people's representatives and youth leaders, and nutrition education, a programme which should have a demonstrative effect and may in turn would have a radiating impact are generally encouraged. Apart from these, the states, as well as local bodies, set apart some funds for encouraging literacy work, recreation activities, games and sports. Funds in small measure are also raised at the village level by the beneficiaries for organising adult education activities for themselves.

Voluntary agencies, both at national and local level, do engage themselves in organising programmes of community organisation and action in some villages, but that is very insignificant since it is very small. Most of these organisations depend almost entirely upon government grants and do not generally have meaningful roots at the village, or even at block level.

At government level, ministries and/or Departments of Education, Agricultural Extension, Social Welfare, Labour & Employment, Defence, Health and Family Planning and Community Development are the main agencies engaged in programmes of social education in the villages. All these agencies promote activities in collaboration with the local bodies called Panchavati Raj bodies.

The Outlook

Under the circumstances, and in order to expand and stabilise the programmes of social education in rural areas, local bodies have to be strengthened in greater measure and doubts about their establishment removed for ever. Such a politico-policy has to be the main concern of social education work during the next decade or so. It is imperative that all those associated with any kind of social education work in rural India, both at the governmental or non-governmental levels including academic studies, international aid, would do a yeoman service to the movement if they keep this aspect as the guiding principle in organising their work.

While the current demands on the movement of social education in the country are primarily associated with enlightening people in creating avenues of more employment and self-employment, areas such as strengthening panchayati raj bodies, mobilising small savings, educating for family planning, informing about land reforms and many other such aspects will have to be dealt with. Evidently, all these are directly related to the field of adult education.

Coming to the most immediate role and prospects of community development organisation and social structure in promoting national development, it seems that two considerations should be kept in view. Firstly, such projects and programmes should be formulated and implemented which do not involve extra funds because these would not be available for any other purpose unless they are related to the unemployment situation in rural areas; secondly, the existing infrastructure should be put to optimum use. Perhaps, we can usefully focus attention on encouraging meaningful, purposive and problem-oriented action-research in various institutions, centres and even in universities. This may involve attempting to create a climate for such a purpose and existing research institutions have to be judiciously pressed into this kind of national service for national development. Besides promotion of pilot projects in various directions, with a view to seeing that they have a radiating effect, can be another task. The pilot stage may not be very long, and also the project should not stop when the funds from outside are no longer available. Strengthening panchayati raj bodies and mobilising support from voluntary agencies in the districts are two other important roles in the organisational terms since these could build a system and stabilise work. The detailed and concrete proposals in each of these areas however need to be formulated.

PROGRAMMES OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

Social education programmes, in general, includes adult literacy, health education, training in domestic skills (especially mother-craft, domestic economy for women), recreational skills, skills for self-expression and arts and crafts, general knowledge, information and

experience of social life and social participation in a democratic way.³⁰ In the following paragraphs, progress of these programmes will be assessed.

Adult Literacy

Adult education is utmost essential in a country like India where a large number of people miss schooling and where the education given does not correspond to the developmental needs. It is important even in traditional occupations such as agriculture. For a farmer who ploughs the soil should understand the nature of the soil in order to be able to adopt new practices and improve upon them. Similarly, in the field of family planning also, people can be educated about its importance and to make them understand the implications of increase in population, to provide some knowledge of the laws of life and to make them realize the responsibility in programmes of family planning and value of small size family norm. This can be done through adult literacy.

The importance of adult education was realised long back in India. A perusal of the Report of the Education Commission of 1888 reveals that there were night schools of some sort for adults in towns and a number of museums and libraries had been set up which were indirect source of informal education for adults. But these institutions hardly made any impact on society. With the development of formal education system, adult education received inadequate attention of the leaders and Government and the concept and objectives of adult education were not at all clear. Until the end of the nineteenth century literacy classes were conducted here and there only in towns, while a large majority of rural population remained more or less untouched. In 1938, the Indian Adult Education Association came into existence and brought the idea of concept of adult education to the forefront.

After independence, all aspects of development, viz., social, economic, political and educational, received greater attention. Although some schemes of adult education were started but no appreciable improvement could be observed in literacy. However, the Government of India launched a massive adult literacy programme on October 2, 1978. It was expected that adult literacy will suppress social evils such as injustice, untouchability and inequality. The programme of adult education in broad terms, aims at making ten crore illiterate adults in the age group of 15-35 literate within five years. The main components of the programmes are: literacy, which makes people self-reliant; enhancing efficiency through which people may lead a happy life; creating consciousness among people towards important rules, laws, rights and duties.

Under the Literacy programme literacy centres for adults have been established in a large number of villages, in which assistance of school teachers, voluntary organisations, universities has been sought. With concerted efforts, about 25 lakh adults have been able to attain literacy through adult education classes by the end of Second Five-Year Plan. The number of literate adults has further increased in subsequent plans.

Despite the efforts which have been made in different plan periods, the incidence of illiteracy has not decreased very much. At present, about 66 per cent of Indian population is illiterate. Analysis of literacy among people in the age group of 15 and above shows that in the year 1951, 1961, 1977 the increase in the rate of literacy was 19.26 per cent, 27.76 per cent, 34.08 per cent and 38 per cent respectively. During this period, the corresponding number of illiterates was 17.39 crores in 1951, 18.70 crores in 1961, 20.95 crores in 1971 and 22.65 crores in 1977.

Out of total 9.71 crore illiterates in the age group of 15-35, the rate of literacy among women was only 18.80 per cent. There was great disparity in the rate of literacy of rural and urban areas, among scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and other higher castes.³¹

Initial programme of literacy could not get the desired success in the country due to the following reasons: literacy campaigns were too inadequate to achieve significant advance and generate enthusiasm for further efforts; literacy drives were sporadic and uncoordinated; Government departments, voluntary agencies, educational institutions and individuals concerned with the programme functioned more in isolation than in active collaboration with other agencies; literacy drives were often launched hastily, without a careful assessment of the needs, and interests of adults, without awakening public interest or stimulating the desire to learn, and without adequate provision for the follow-up work in the absence of which no lasting results could be obtained.³²

It is, however, felt that a mere increase in the number of literates every year will not serve the purpose and the new literates will not be able to contribute to national development programmes. Literacy has to be made self-sustained. An adult must achieve a standard of literacy equivalent to class V or VI, at least through the literacy classes. In making adult literacy self-sustained, time allocated to source of study, frequency of classes per week, besides length of period to be devoted each day have a decisive role. A vast majority of adult literacy classes in the country last for 4 to 6 months. There is no uniformity in terms of duration of course of study. For example, the Government of Madhya Pradesh started adult literacy programme allotting 10 months for literacy classes for a batch. In Tamil Nadu, on the other hand adult classes lasted for three years. Wherever adult literacy classes last for 4 to 6 months, it is unlikely to help in any way in making the adult literacy self-sustained because in this short period, the adults receiving education will not be able to acquire knowledge equivalent to class V standard of a regular school. Moreover, literacy can be retained only by way of practice or otherwise it may vanish. Most of the adults rendered literate lapse into illiteracy just because they have no chance to keep it up in their post-school years.

Libraries

Public libraries are of great importance in the advancement of liberal education. It checks adults rendered literate to lapse into illiteracy again. Progress of libraries is quite slow. On the basis of the recommendations, an Advisory Committee for Libraries submitted a report long back according to which libraries are established in different parts of the country. In the past, libraries were not functioning properly due to shortage of books, trained personnel and inadequate attention. The Government has taken fresh initiative to encourage the library movement in the country.

The facilities of libraries are mostly confined to cities only. The number of libraries and books available, however, is quite insufficient to meet the growing requirements. Although the public library system is the cheapest and the most acceptable and most desirable method of providing a chance to people to keep their literacy skill in working condition, the progress made in this regard is inadequate.

Non-formal Education

During Fifth Five Year Plan, the non-formal education programme was introduced in 1975. It also covered children and younger age groups who did not have the opportunity for formal schooling or left school for one reason or another. The programme is based on the approach that every individual has a right to education, when he wants it, where he wants it, as much as he wants it. This is applicable to all levels of education and for all ages and categories of learners — children, youth dropouts, older men and women working and non-working.³³

Under the programmes, children in the age group of 6-14, youth in the age group of 15-25 and specific groups of men and women engaged in development activities having common occupational or social or cultural identity have been covered.

With the introduction of this programme, the emphasis again changed from more community programme to the three R's, which is a critical feature in the programme.

Continuing Education of Adult Women

In the post-independence period, a number of schemes of condensed course for women have been initiated with a view to helping women between the ages of 20-35, who have had some schooling earlier, to complete their studies upto the middle or high school standard in two years. This way, an educational base is prepared for vocational training, especially in teaching, where there is a big need and demand for women teachers. By the end of the Second Five Year Plan, as many as 216 voluntary organisations had conducted 222 condensed courses.

The scheme of condensed course of education for adult women was started in 1958 for opening new vistas of employment to deserving and

needy women and for creating a band of trained workers such as primary school teachers, balsevikas, nurses, health visitors, midwives and family planning workers.

On the whole, the scheme has already benefited a large number of women particularly those belonging to the age group of 18-30 years. The overall response to the scheme has been encouraging from all sections of society.

Adult Literacy and Integrated Rural Development

Integrated Rural Development programme was launched in 1978-79 with the objective of raising the poor families in rural areas above the poverty line (families of about 5 persons with an annual income level below Rs.3,500) by giving them income-generating assets and access to credit and other inputs. At present, 32 crore people are below the poverty line, of which 26 crores are in the rural areas.³⁴ The target groups include small and marginal farmers, agricultural and non-agricultural labourers, rural artisans and craftsmen, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

The programme had been started with the following two objectives:

- (a) raising income and generating employment, which has to be achieved through investment in agriculture, and
- (b) allied occupations, cottage and small-scale industries, etc. Initially this programme was taken up in 2,300 blocks in the country. It was, however, extended to 5,011 blocks subsequently.

Farmers' Education

During the Fourth Five-Year Plan (1969-74) the programme of farmers' education and functional literacy in the high-yielding variety was launched.³⁵ The main component of the farmer's education programme was demonstration service organised by agricultural scientists drawn from agricultural universities and research stations and assisted by parapatetic teams and expansion staff. The second component of the programme was dissemination of agricultural information through audio-visual aids such as radio broadcasts, films and posters. The third component of the programme was formation of farmers' discussion groups and a two-way channel of communication between the farmers' group, on the one hand, and scientists and agricultural officers, on the other.

The aim of the programme was to educate people about the new technology in order to facilitate improvement in agricultural productivity. It was proposed to educate the farmers through demonstrations and to organise one-day training camps in villages by mobile teams of specialists. The farmers in these camps had to be encouraged to discuss about high yielding varieties, various methods of agriculture, balanced use of fertilizer, irrigation arrangements, propagation of seedlings.

Under the functional literacy programme the farmers are provided knowledge in high-yielding varieties of seeds, preparation of farms, keeping account of farmers' income and expenditure, use of fertilizers, and an overall improvement in the level of knowledge in matters concerning daily life.

The programme of farmers' education during the Fourth Five-Year Plan could be launched in 80 districts only. In due course of time, shortcomings such as selection of the districts for initiating programmes were noticed. It was found that out of 80 training centres, 21 centres did not have adequate staff. Further, training under the programme could be given to a limited number of farmers and the district level officer did not give full cooperation in this programme. The programme of demonstrations by specialists was started in the year of 1965 and it was strengthened during the Fourth Plan. It was, however, observed that the impact of the programme was not uniform.³⁶

Women's Education

A scheme of functional literacy for adult women in the age group 15-45 was also started in 1975-76. It offers non-formal education to cover component of health and hygiene, food and nutrition, home management and child care, school education and vocational occupational skill. This scheme is being implemented in 300 Integrated Child Development Service Project areas.

Thus education of adult women aims at providing knowledge in nutrition to train different crafts, to give knowledge about home-management and to educate women in agriculture. In the year 1980 this programme was being implemented in 1766 blocks.³⁷

The ultimate aim of the programme of women's education in rural areas is to integrate them in rural development programmes. As a large segment of work force in rural areas consists of women, and because of their economic role and status in the family, functional literacy programme for women assumes significance.

Health Education

The programme of health education was launched during the Second Five-Year Plan.³⁸ The objective of the programme is to help people to maintain good health by their observance. It was intended to remove ignorance and promote an understanding of individual and community health needs. Health education is intended to improve the living conditions of people and aims at developing a sense of responsibility of betterment of their own health as individuals and as members of families, communities and governments.

The health education work has been intensified in order to utilise fully the medical and public health facilities provided under the plan and

to help people to change their attitudes and practices. To implement the policies and programmes of health education, the Government of India established the Central Education Bureau in 1956, which consists of Media Division, Training Division, Research and Evaluation Division, and School Health Education Division. During the Fifth Plan, health education was considered essential for the success and encouragement of the programmes related with preventive aspects of health, family planning, and nutritious food. Efforts were made to link health education with general education and to publicise it through publication of some literature in simple language and to distribute it among the public.³⁹

APPROACHES TO SOCIAL EDUCATION

An approach is a general way of looking at performing a certain activity and it includes a number of methods which, again, have their respective techniques. In order to launch a literacy campaign the Education Commission (1964-1966) adapted two approaches, namely, (a) the selective approach, and (b) the mass approach. The selective approach is more intensive in nature and suits groups which can be easily identified, controlled and motivated. The mass approach is extensive in nature and is based on a determined mobilization of all available educated men and women in the country to constitute a force to combat illiteracy and an effective organization and utilization of this force in a well planned literacy campaign.⁴⁰

The Eleventh National Seminar of Social Education organised under the auspices of the India Adult Education Association, studied this subject and proposed the following three approaches:

- (a) specific activity approach;
- (b) general field approach; and
- (c) educational process approach.

In the specific activity approach, an individual social education worker or an agency of social education seeks to bring about some particular reform in the community and launches a programme with this end in view. This approach is suitable when a single problem has to be studied in isolation, when a particular situation calls for an immediate and all-out effort, when the level of people's understanding is low and the community is unorganised.

The general field approach is intended to bring about coordination among the different agencies engaged in a particular area of interest for coping up with the individual and group needs of the community. This approach is concerned with effective planning. The educational process approach is concerned with developing capacity among people for working in cooperation to deal with their own problems.

Commenting upon these approaches, Dhar stated that the first two approaches — the specific activity and the general field approach — will

be meaningless from the point of view of social education if the people themselves have not the capacity for working cooperatively to deal with their own problems. He found the last approach more fundamental than the other two approaches. Regarding the specific activity approach, he observed, its immediate aim is the solution of a single problem through a particular agency but it should not aim at the completion of this specific task only. This approach may be utilized to instill confidence in the minds of the people. This will act as a lever to create an active awareness within the community of more general objectives of effective planning and operation of a special group of services in the community through mobilization of community resources in personnel and funds. An educational process must underline both these approaches for achieving optimum results.⁴¹

As education requires a conscious effort on the part of the learners, efforts are made to acquire mastery over certain written symbols in the elementary stage. To some extent, it appears artificial to the adult learners and repels them. This initial hardship often nips in the bud their educational process. In order to overcome this problem, a few suggestions have been made by workers engaged in social education programme. One school of thought is to find out felt-needs of adult learners and to motivate them accordingly. Since adults are mature, rational and conscious of their own interest, proper motivation can create an urge to make necessary efforts to learn what they are required to learn for enriching the quality of their life. They are of the opinion that in order to create interest among adult learners for education, it has to be presented in an attractive form. Therefore, adult education should be exclusively pleasure-oriented. It is also opined that mere harping upon the felt needs of the adults or providing recreational facilities for them will not carry us very far. Unless an adult education centre has arrangement for training in craft or crafts so as to enable the learners to make some additional earnings, they will not be sufficiently enthused to come to it.

Each of these approaches is only partially right and has validity for a specific group of adult learners. The best approach is, of course, to motivate the adult learners properly by utilizing their felt needs because this is likely to produce the maximum results.

A sample survey of some adult education centres in the Tamluk sub-division of the district of Midnapur in West Bengal, however, has revealed that no single approach is universally applicable to adult learners. Different approaches are appropriate for different groups of learners.⁴²

Since need, interest and mental ability of the adult learners differ from each other, no single approach will be useful. There are four types of adult illiterates: one group of illiterates is of those who need some recognition and may refuse to attend a literacy class. Such persons can be made literate by way of sending a tutor to his house for working with

him. In this way, his need of recognition will be satisfied and it will create an interest in him to learn reading and writing. Adoption of this approach calls for a sufficient number of workers. This appears to be impracticable as there is already scarcity of workers in the field. In every block only one social Education Organiser and one Mukhya Sevika has been provided.

There is another group of poor illiterates, who do not like to come to literacy class because of their pre-occupation in earning their livelihood. As these illiterates have no interest in education, it will be necessary to make such arrangements, where they could earn while learning.

There is another group of illiterates who do not come to classes just because of carelessness. For such group pleasure-oriented education needs to be provided. This group will, however, require intensive motivation. Lastly, there is a group of those who come to the class on their own. They are directly interested in education and are ready to take all the necessary pains for the purpose. This group does not need intensive motivation.

The methods of social education are the most effective ways of executing the programmes connected with it. Each of the items of social education has its own specific methods like the literacy method. In India, the programmes of social education are concerned with the satisfaction of the felt needs of the adults and solving their problems. Various methods applied in social education are social action, group work and group methods. Under group work method, which is based on democratic philosophy, a group of members is formed for purposes of initiating action. Individual members participate democratically in group discussion and follow group methods in solving their problems. This method creates leadership quality and sense of belongingness. This way social education has been defined as community upliftment through community action.

GENERAL ASSESSMENT

Ever since the inception of the programme, some scholars dealing with community development programme, in general, and social education, in particular, have attempted to examine its impact. As the programme was introduced on a massive scale in all the States and Union Territories in the country with different importance in different places, it is difficult to make an appropriate assessment as to what extent the programme has been able to contribute in the overall attainment of the stated objectives. It is also not evident whether the programme faced some problems and if so what was the nature of these problems.

However, a perusal of the available literature reveals that the programme of social education generally faced the following problems:

1. lack of interest and enthusiasm among people;
2. lathargy and fatalistic outlook of the people;

3. lack of resources and their timely supply;
4. lack of cooperation among the workers;
5. lack of effective leadership; and
6. lack of appropriate administrative organisation.

In most of the places, as has been shown in the available studies, the programme had a limited impact on the society in general and the people, in particular. The programme had a good start when the responsibility to implement the programme was given to the community development organisation which included social education as an integral part of the development process. The appointment of key-functionaries such as Social Education Organisers, however, failed to receive the desired place in total administrative set up in due course and consequently failed to make the desired impact.

So far as literacy is concerned, the progress in the country is far from satisfactory. Lethargy and fatalistic outlook of people are some of the reasons responsible for slow progress in the eradication of illiteracy. Also, non-availability of an effective agency for the eradication of illiteracy from among the adult population has been a major problem.

According to Dhar progress of literacy has been affected due to various activities to be conducted through community centres. Literacy is only one of the activities of the community centre. Literacy programme is not getting due attention because various activities of community development are carried out by a community centre.⁴³

Sharma is of the opinion that the social education programme is facing the following problems. Villagers relate adult literacy with employment and give emphasis to its economic aspect while social education is more concerned with its social education. Most of the social education workers avoid to stay in rural areas and do not take interest in the programme. No emphasis is being laid on other aspects of social education such as health, recreation, and home science. There is scarcity of resources required for the success of the programme.⁴⁴

In connection with the programme of functional literacy, the following drawbacks have been highlighted by Madan in respect of the functioning of functional literacy centres; there are no adequate arrangements for light. Even at places where electricity is available students have to study under kerosene lamps. The supply of teaching aids such as books, black-boards etc. is not made on time with the result much of the time of the teachers and students is wasted without any desired result. As the centres are mostly located in the houses of influential persons in the village, the low caste people or people belonging to other castes feel reluctant to go there. As a result the attendance is not generally satisfactory. Some of the centres were found closed due to lack of proper supervision. In the case of centres for male adults there is no provision for the supply of samples of seeds, fertilizers and agricultural

implements for demonstration to the farmers. Further, the emphasis was on literacy and vocational training. The importance of social education was not given due consideration in this programme. In the case of centres for women, the students preferred training in sewing and embroidery, which was not possible without the provision of a sewing machine for the centre and adequate training to the teacher in these subjects.

Madan has also pointed out some shortcomings in non-formal education. The teachers employed in literacy centres were residing far away from their centres with the result they are more often absent. The scheme of non-formal education has been entrusted entirely to the education department and only teachers already working in the regular schools are employed. In such a set-up the cooperation of voluntary social workers is lacking.⁴⁵

Due to lack of discipline among teachers of literacy centres, the programme of social education could not get success to the desired extent. There is lack of cooperation among the workers of social education programme, and workers made responsible for this task have been given other responsibilities also. Consequently, they are not able to devote full time to social education programme. For instance, the Village Development Officer who has sufficient practical and theoretical knowledge of social education is not able to devote even one hour to social education work. Work load of social education organisers was found to be heavy as in a Block there are only two workers (one social education organiser and one Mukhya Sevika) who have to work in about 100 villages.

In the past, many literacy drives were organised but these did not yield the desired results. The initial enthusiasm of adult learners lasted only for a couple of months due to lack of proper motivation of adult learners by the organisers.⁴⁶

The approach towards adult literacy has been rather extensive in the sense that too many people have been sought to be covered within too short a time.⁴⁷

The attempts to combat illiteracy have been mostly sporadic and isolated. Different government departments and voluntary agencies have all worked in their own way, there being hardly any coordination among them. Often, they have worked in a half-hearted manner and have failed to make continuous sustained efforts.

Impact of Social Education on Educational Development

While it is difficult to assess the actual impact of social education on educational development because of non-availability of required information and studies, nevertheless some general observations may be made on the basis of the assumption that there has been an indirect

effect of social education. There has been an increase in the overall literacy level for both males and females. Since independence the increase in literacy level has been more pronounced in the case of females than for males, which is evident from the following table.⁴⁸

Table 5.2

Literacy in India 1951-1981 (including population in age group 0-4)

| Year | Total | Males | Females |
|------|-------|-------|---------|
| 1951 | 16.67 | 24.95 | 7.93 |
| 1961 | 24.02 | 34.44 | 12.95 |
| 1971 | 29.45 | 39.45 | 18.69 |
| 1981 | 36.17 | 46.74 | 24.88 |

The Census Report of 1981 shows that in rural areas only 29.57 per cent of total population was literate. Among males literacy was 40.62 per cent and among females only 17.99 per cent.

About 57.19 per cent of total population in urban areas was found to be literate. Among females 47.65 per cent and among males 65.58 per cent were literate.⁴⁹

About 42.12 per cent of population in the age group of 5 and above is literate. Among males, the level of literacy is higher than females. About 54.54 per cent males and 29.04 per cent females in the age group of 5 and above are literate. Effective literacy rates have been calculated by using age structure data as given by the expert committee on population projection for 1981 and eliminating population in ages 0-4.

The following tables 5.3 (a) and (b) show the level of effective literacy among total and female population in the age group of 5 and above in different years.⁵⁰

Table 5.3

(a) Effective Literacy rate 1961 to 1981

| Year | Among total population (age 5 or above) | Among female population |
|------|--|----------------------------|
| 1961 | 28.30 | 15.33 |
| 1971 | 34.45 | 21.97 |
| 1981 | 42.21 | 29.04 |

Table 5.3

(b) Effective Literacy Rates among Total Population 1961-81

| States | Effective Literacy Rates | | |
|------------------|--------------------------|-------|-------|
| | 1961 | 1971 | 1981 |
| India | 28.30 | 34.45 | 42.21 |
| Andhra Pradesh | 25.05 | 28.52 | 34.15 |
| Assam | 33.70 | 34.60 | — |
| Bihar | 22.24 | 23.35 | 30.24 |
| Gujarat | 36.78 | 41.84 | 50.49 |
| Haryana | — | 31.91 | 41.69 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 20.11 | 37.30 | 47.92 |
| Jammu & Kashmir | 13.20 | 21.71 | — |
| Karnataka | 30.53 | 36.83 | 44.36 |
| Kerala | 55.64 | 69.75 | 78.72 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 20.79 | 26.37 | 32.43 |
| Maharashtra | 35.50 | 45.77 | 53.69 |
| Manipur | 36.85 | 38.47 | 51.15 |
| Meghalaya | — | 35.06 | 39.52 |
| Nagaland | 21.37 | 31.32 | 48.37 |
| Orissa | 25.69 | 30.53 | 39.58 |
| Punjab | 29.18 | 38.69 | 46.43 |
| Rajasthan | 18.40 | 22.57 | 28.33 |
| Sikkim | — | 20.22 | 38.41 |
| Tamil Nadu | 36.77 | 45.40 | 51.51 |
| Tripura | 24.66 | 36.19 | 47.95 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 21.13 | 25.44 | 31.94 |
| West Bengal | 35.31 | 38.86 | 47.60 |

The information given in the above table shows that there is improvement in the level of literacy but still 58 per cent of the population of five years of age and over is still illiterate. These figures for males and females are 45 and 71 per cent respectively. In terms of effective literacy rate, Kerala is on the top with 78.7 per cent and Rajasthan in the bottom with 28.3 per cent according to the Census 1981.

Misra has observed that greater proportion of illiterate population is confined to the entire northern belt consisting of Rajasthan, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and some districts of Andhra Pradesh and Northern Karnataka. States having a higher proportion of literate population also reveal depressing economic and demographic characteristics. Educationally backward states are also economically backward.⁵¹

It is thus evident that there is an improvement in the level of literacy but its pace is very slow. Thus impact of social education on educational development does not appear to be significant.

ANNEXURE 'A'
Education Including Social Education Functions Of Panchayati Raj Institutions
Functions

| State 1 | Panchayat 2 | Panchayat Samiti 3 | Zilla Parishad 4 |
|----------------------|--|---|---|
| 1. Andhra Pradesh | — | Management of Elementary Schools | Establish and maintain secondary, vocational, industrial schools |
| 2. Assam | — | — | — |
| 3. Bihar | — | Planning and execution of education and social education. | Maintain or expand vocational and industrial schools. |
| 4. Gujarat | Pre-primary education, libraries, Provision for school building. | (Taluk Panchayat) Establishing primary schools assistance to educational activities of gram/nagar panchayats. | Undertaking educational activities entrusted to them, Aiding secondary, technical and industrial schools, assisting to social service institutions. |
| 5. Himachal Pradesh | Maintenance of Primary schools. | — | — |
| 6. Jammu and Kashmir | Promotion of Elementary education | — | — |

| <i>State</i> 1 | <i>Panchayat</i> 2 | <i>Panchayat Samiti</i> 3 | <i>Zilla Parishad</i> 4 |
|-------------------|---|--|---|
| 7. Karnataka | — | — | — |
| 8. Kerala | Promotion of education and culture, Control of primary schools. | — | — |
| 9. Madhya Pradesh | — | (Janpad Panchayats) Maintenance of Primary & basic schools | — |
| 10. Maharashtra | Promotion of education | Primary education | 1. Educational development of backward classes including grant of scholarships and maintenance of hostels. 2. Establishment, maintenance and inspection of Primary, basic and secondary schools. 3. Social Education. |
| 11. Orissa | Primary schools (Under Obligatory functions) | Planning, Execution and supervision of primary education. | — |
| 12. Punjab | — | Social Education | — |
| 13. Rajasthan | Promotion of Educations and Promotion of Primary | | — |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|--------------------------------------|--|---|---|
| | culture, establishment of adhras, clubs, libraries, reading rooms etc. | education. Promotion of social education | |
| 14. Tamil Nadu | — | (Panchayat Union Council) Promotion of elementary education. | — |
| 15. Uttar Pradesh | Establishment of Primary schools. | (Kshetra Samithi) Establishment and Maintenance of Primary schools | Construction and mainten- ance of schools above pri- mary stage and upto junior high schools, libraries etc. |
| 16. West Bengal | Primary Education | (Anchalik Parishad) Primary education | Supervision primary educa- tion — adult education. |
| (Centrally Administered Territories) | | | |
| 17. Delhi | Administration | — | — |
| 18. Andaman & Nicobar Islands | Improvement of education | — | — |
| 19. Goa, Daman & Diu | Education | — | — |

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48. *Hand Book on Social Welfare Statistics 1981*, Govt. of India Ministry of Social Welfare, New Delhi, p. 85.
49. *Ibid*, p. 86.
50. *The Journal of Family Welfare*, Vol. XXVIII No. 2, p. 84.
51. Misra, "The Indian Literacy Scenario" in the *Journal of Family Welfare*, Vol. XXVIII No. 2, pp. 82-89.

Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad: A Movement for Mass Education

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Introduction

The KSSP is a 'Science Movement' in Kerala. In the strict sense of the word it is not an educational 'Reform'. In the most wide sense, yes, it is education. It is an experiment too, though not a laboratory one. It is a continuously evolving and living experiment. Its slogan or objective is, "Science for Social Revolution". The meanings of all the three words, science, society and revolution, have been evolving. So it will be wrong to view it as a preconceived reform with specific objectives to be achieved over a certain duration of time. And, since it is an ongoing one with ever increasing vigour, it will be premature to make any overall evaluation of success or failure. However, over these years a number of specific tasks have been undertaken with more or less defined objectives. The success and failure in the achievement of these objectives can be, to some extent, evaluated. Before going into the details of these, it will be good to give a preview of the present situation.

Today the Parishad has a more or less well definable ideology epitomized by its slogan : "Science for Social Revolution". But it was not built upon the foundations of a previously defined ideology. It started functioning in an attempt to 'popularise science among the masses'. The present ideology is the evolutionary product of its activities and experiences.

KSSP considers that science is not value free. It can and will have partisanship. There is a minority with ownership and control over resources and a majority without any of these advantages. This picture of a rich minority and poor majority is not a static one. There is a process of differentiation taking place whereby the rich are becoming richer and the poor poorer. Parishad is partial towards this poor majority.

The 'Social Revolution' which the Parishad wants to help bring about is one in which these impoverishment and enrichment processes are reversed and where there is a forward motion of the entire society.

Confidence in such an ideology, evolved through their own experience, provides the necessary motive force for the workers. The political consciousness and alertness and the high level of literacy in Kerala might be some of the contributing factors for the growth of this movement. The geography of the State, its smallness and accessibility to every nook and corner, might have also contributed.

'Establishment', as an impersonal entity representing the *status quo*, has always been hostile. There are, of course, friends everywhere, always ready to help. The fluid nature of the political situation in the State could be one of the reasons for this. On a number of occasions, Government has given Parishad funds for specific activities like distribution of books to rural libraries, organisation of seminars, setting up of an audiovisual mobile unit and a Science Centre. The attitude of political parties towards the Parishad has been generally friendly, though none of them would agree *in toto* with its activities and ideology. It is very difficult for anybody to take an open anti-science attitude. However, it remains a fact that political parties avowedly based on religious or surreptitiously working for the interests of the rich minority cannot endorse all the activities of the Parishad and they do offer resistance in certain situations.

Publication of magazines, books and pamphlets is the main source of income for the Parishad. This is supplemented by occasional grants given by the Government and other agencies for specific purposes.

It is very difficult to judge the real impact of the movement on Kerala society. So far, the techno-bureaucrats of the 'Establishment' had a monopoly of scientific opinion formation in the State, as also elsewhere in India. KSSP has been able to give them a rude shock. Pollution and ecology, the malfunctioning of the health care and educational systems have become topics of discussion in trains, in streets, at bus stands, in schools and in colleges and also in many public forums. In this sense, the KSSP has generated a great deal of public attention and debate on issues which are not sufficiently brought up before the people.

A BRIEF HISTORY

Formative Years

The present organisation of KSSP was formed in 1962 at the initiative of a handful of persons which included some of those who originally floated a Sastra Sahitya Samithy in 1957. The main activities were organisation of seminars and publications. The concept of KSSP, then, was that of a forum of science writers. The printed word, through articles in periodicals, was the principal medium for popularization of science. The membership of the organisation was generally restricted to science writers and demands for

publication of popular articles and books on science were addressed to newspapers and publishers.

Even in this limited objective there was an element of novelty as well as of challenge to tradition. In it one can notice the reverberations of a changing society. In a predominantly feudal set-up in India the language of knowledge (and of science) was Sanskrit; with the British conquest of India, this was replaced by English. The multiplicity of languages in the country led to the continuation of English as the medium of instruction and administration even after the British left the country. The science writers, who initially organised KSSP, were raising, in a sense, the battle cry against this attitude. They were demanding that science should be handled through one's own mother-tongue. This demand for importance of Indian languages is related to several older movements. It is related to the national liberation movement and the struggle against feudalism. The leaders of Indian freedom movement were arguing for linguistic provinces even as early as the thirties. When KSSP demanded that science be handled through the medium of Indian languages, it was only echoing this felt necessity of the society.

The socio-political environment in Kerala helped to a great extent the development of this idea. Several of the struggles of the 'backward' communities in Kerala were related to their demand for right to education. The Library Movement and Teachers' Movement in the forties of this century reinforced and spread the importance of education in social reforms. These movements were further strengthened by the peasant struggles in Malabar and the growth of a strong radical political movement throughout Kerala. All these factors have made it conducive to the emergence and growth of a Science Movement in the State.

From an all-India context, changes in the economy and society were taking place especially after 1947. Capitalism and industrialisation were growing at a faster rate. The inauguration of planning with Five Year Plans led to the establishment of scores of scientific and technical institutions throughout the country. The link between science and technology and economic development was being stressed, both by politicians and experts. 'Science' was becoming important; more and more people were willing to listen to it. The formation of KSSP coincided with this period. The KSSP came into existence as a necessity of the times.

The formative decade, 1962 to 1972, saw the following developments :

(i) During the initial phase of formation, 1962-67, there was only a loosely knit grouping with membership spread throughout the State. The main centre of activity was Calicut and seminars and symposia were the major forms of activity. The target group was the public in general and the medium resorted to was the printed word.

(ii) The period 1967-72 witnessed the development of an organisational structure. A constitution was adopted, the organisation was registered

as a society, and local and district level organisations and committees were set up. It also saw the spreading of activity to schools and colleges. The spoken word became as important as the printed word.

(iii) From 1967 there was also a qualitative change in the membership. In the beginning the members were mainly engineers, scientists, college teachers and a few prominent social workers with social commitments of varying degrees. In the second phase, 1967-72, more and more school teachers and persons from other walks of life began to join the KSSP, with more active commitment and willingness to spare time for organisational work.

Into the Streets

In 1971-72, after the eighth annual conference at Ernakulam the delegates went in a procession shouting slogans on science, to a public maidan where a senior Professor of chemistry gave a 90-minute speech on chemistry in day-to-day life. The public, relaxing in the nearby parks, were surprised and delighted to hear Chemistry from a maidan mike. Next year, a one-day jatha was organised on the occasion of the 9th annual conference at Thiruvalla. Three car jathas which included Professors and Principals of Engineering, Medical, and Agricultural colleges converged at Thiruvalla. On the way they were given receptions at several places, where they gave lectures. They found common people extremely interested in science. More importantly, they saw themselves as frogs in abysmal wells of blissful ignorance of people's problems and perceptions.

Thus began the massive mass contact programme of KSSP which was to become one of its most important activities. The Bharathiya Vijnan Patrika Samithi, an organization of science periodicals in Indian languages, sponsored by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) suggested that the first week of January every year be planned as Science Week; KSSP responded. It planned one thousand lectures on "Evolution of the Universe, Man and Society", from 1 to 7 January 1973. More than 1,200 classes were held.

In the meantime, involvement of KSSP in non-curricular activities in schools became more widespread. The State Government had been trying to organize and activate 'science clubs' in high schools, through circulars and orders, but without much success. School teachers involved in KSSP took up this work as a campaign and in two years 1973-74, about 1,500 high schools had science clubs, all of them affiliated to KSSP. Under various schemes many of these schools have been provided with kits and audio-visual aids. But for various reasons they were all under lock and key. The 'open the kit' campaign which KSSP launched at that time has been only partially successful.

Introspection and into the Villages

1974 should be considered as another turning point in the history of KSSP. A process of introspection went on for some time with occasional discussions. Gradually it became obvious that unless the KSSP faced and addressed itself to the economic problems of the society, its efforts were bound to be extremely superficial. So far KSSP had been functioning mostly in urban and semi-urban centres. As a result they conceived a programme, in which one hundred activists of KSSP would take 10-12 days' leave during the summer holidays, go to a village, stay there, study the economic, social and cultural life there, identify the S & T elements in them and operationalize the KSSP activities on that basis. This never materialized. But the idea spread and the concept of Rural Science Forums emerged. Since then this concept has undergone substantial changes. However, this marked a significant change in the perspective of KSSP.

The eleventh annual conference held at Trivandrum accepted 'Science for Social Revolution' as the slogan of KSSP. By then KSSP had come to use the term 'science' not in its narrow disciplinary context of identifying with bio-physical sciences but in its fundamental sense of embracing all fields of human knowledge. This was in response to its attempt to understand the link between the physical and social realities. At first it had only a very vague and hazy idea of what this 'social revolution' should be. They felt that they should discuss in detail and share experiences and aspirations. But formal executive committee meetings were not suitable for this purpose. Thus was born the idea of 'workers' camp' which has become since then an important annual activity. These annual camps have played an important role in forging that feeling of brotherhood and enthusiasm among the workers of KSSP, which is perhaps the most important source of motivation for all of them. The community life with its stoic simplicity and total involvement, temporarily forgetting the external world, has always been an exhilarating experience.

Philosophical Orientation

In 1976, KSSP planned to repeat the mass lecture programme but in the form of study classes with a different title, "Nature, Science and Society". About 100 activists were given two days' training based on specially prepared notes. There was much enthusiasm as well as a feeling of challenge in conducting classes on a topic to which the common people were never before exposed. The socio-political climate also was exceptionally convenient for involvement of teachers *en mass* in this campaign. During the period from January 1 to 31, 1976 nearly 12,000 classes were conducted instead of 3,000 as originally planned. 'Science in History' by J.D. Bernal was one of the main sources on which the text for the classes was prepared.

Organizing this campaign gave KSSP an opportunity to develop an understanding of the history and philosophy of science, which have more meaning to its task of developing a 'scientific' attitude among the people. Also, it was gradually becoming aware of the potential of campaigns to focus the attention of the common people. So the next campaign was planned towards the end of 1976 and beginning of 1977. It was realized that the campaign should focus on the immediate economic environment and comment on the existing economic process and development activities. For this purpose, a book was designed and written by a team of experts drawn from specialised and advanced institutions of research and learning in Trivandrum. The book was titled as "Wealth of Kerala". Apart from offering a critique of the existing process of economic development, it attempted to provide an alternative approach and perspective for economic development of the State. This has been widely acclaimed as one of the best books ever published in this field and it has seen through several editions.

Diversification

KSSP had, by this time, become quite well known. Its activists included engineers, technologists, doctors, educators, environmental scientists, economists; in fact serious students of all subjects. It was developing its own expertise and was in constant touch with the people and had a sense of commitment. It had to respond to issues relating to development of energy, irrigation, education, health and pollution control. What it had to say was listened to seriously at least by a significant section of the public as well as decision-making groups. It found itself collaborating, in its way, with the State Planning Board in carrying out economic surveys and in formulating plan proposals in certain key sectors. In any serious discussion or workshop or seminar on education there was a representative of KSSP.

Its knowledge on the resources of Kerala, and their utilization, combined with the unique nature of its teamwork led to different specialised studies. However, one should add here that these studies were not taken up on its initiative but in response either to requests from people in the respective areas or as a result of the public controversy, as in the case of the Silent Valley Project. Viewed in this sense, the studies may be referred to as the products of our action-research. The first such study was the ecological consequences of water control projects in Kuttanad. Before publishing this study, it was discussed with a cross-section of people from Kuttanad during its annual conference held in Kottayam in 1978. It also published a report on the Silent Valley Project, which is now widely known and which made it also known far and wide. Other studies include pollution in Mavoor (Calicut), and Punaloor (Quilon) which also led to agitations and campaigns. It also took up the campaign against harmful and useless drugs in the fight for better health care system. Following these activities an Environment and Health brigade was formed. All these demanded more and more cadres with higher

levels of intellectual equipment. Thus it began a regular internal training programme which it calls cadre training programme.

The Sastra Samskarika (Science Cultural) Jatha of 1978 was yet another landmark. It lasted 37 days, from October 2 (Gandhi Jayanthi) to November 7 (October Revolution and the birthday of C.V. Raman), travelled 11,000 kilometres, partook in nearly 900 receptions and addressed nearly half a million people. It was this experience which was later to lead to Sastrakala Jathas. Science, in its broad sense, is taken to the people through the media of (a) the printed word—books, pamphlets and posters and (b) arts, songs, skits, street plays and folk arts.

Specific issues

More than sixty per cent of the members of KSSP are school teachers and it is but natural that a good number of workers will be interested in problems connected with formal education. Equipping people with weapons of science in their fight for emancipation, on the other hand, requires activities in the field of non-formal education.

The two major tasks that got evolved during these years in the field of formal education can be summarised as follows :

- (a) Make learning and teaching an interesting experience and a useful exercise.
- (b) Formulation of a meaningful education policy and curriculum.

Organization of enrichment and pre-taste courses, competitions, vitalization of school science clubs, utilisation of science kits, audio-visual equipment, quizzes, talent tests, continuing education to teachers, developing an understanding of the economic geography and progress of Kerala, developing an integrated outlook among students and teachers, production and propagation of extra reading material are some of the activities which have contributed to the first objective.

However, while carrying through the above activities, it became obvious that much more serious thought has to be put into the structural and conceptual framework of education, that conscious anti-people policies are being followed and hence are to be opposed, and that continuation of English as the medium of education and administration is detrimental to the majority. Hence it became necessary to evolve an educational policy and meaningful curriculum and organise agitations against anti-people policies.

Non-formal education activities are :

- (a) Public lectures and seminars.
- (b) Publication—books and periodicals.
- (c) Propaganda and agitation on specific issues.
- (d) Use of art media—Sastrakalajatha.

FORMAL EDUCATION

To make learning and teaching an interesting experience is, theoretically easy because it is really interesting. But in practice all teaching and learning have become uninteresting and boring. There are several reasons for this, the most important being the alienation of education from life. This is both an educational and a socio-economic problem. The numbers involved are astronomical—about five million students, two lakhs of teachers and over ten thousand institutions. It appeared to be an insurmountable task. But the experiment by itself was interesting.

In 1969 the KSSP began publication of the science monthly *Eureka*, for the age group 8 to 12. By itself nothing extraordinary happened. But occasionally the students browsing through it get some doubts which they try to clear with their teachers. It was an unusual thing, a student asking doubts, that too outside the text book. Most teachers brush them aside, but occasionally one teacher gets excited, and soon he finds his way to KSSP. *Eureka* became a bridge for school teachers to come in a large way to KSSP. In 1969 summer itself another programme was started, to give a "pretaste" course to students who had appeared for SSLC. Competent lecturers, professors and scientists would give them a pretaste of what they are going to learn when they go to colleges, why they have to learn each subject, and how these various subjects are interconnected in daily life. Since the entire atmosphere was informal and tension free and since students were encouraged to ask questions, these courses soon became very popular and are being repeated during each summer at a number of places.

It became, also, a practice that questions from students would be answered not by a single teacher but by a panel of teachers. From this later evolved the concept of science parliaments.

At the macro level the impact of these courses is negligible. But it became a recruiting ground for KSSP activists, because the teachers saw for the first time how interesting teaching could be if the student was not under pressure. This programme coupled with other activities has turned a few thousand ordinary teachers into good teachers and some of them into very good teachers.

Early 1970's KSSP began to organize science talent tests and quizzes for primary and secondary school children. The *Eureka* Science Talent Test is now being conducted for more than ten years, at two levels, the lower primary (class III and IV) and the upper primary (class V to VII). It is being conducted at three stages, the school, the educational sub-district and the educational district. At the school stage each year about 3 to 4 lakhs of students appear for this test—about 1½ lakh from lower and primary classes and about 2½ lakh from upper primary classes. The State Department of Education co-operates with the KSSP in conducting these tests. Winners

get certificates, prizes and scholarships. The syllabi for these are decided by KSSP. This gives an opportunity to fill up, partially, the lacunae in formal curriculum. More and more parents are getting involved in this. This too has a positive effect.

The Government had been trying to start 'science clubs' in schools without much success. Having already got entry to the schools through *Eureka* and *Sastrakeralam*, monthly magazines, KSSP decided to move in this matter and during two years in more than 1500 high schools science clubs were formed. They became associate members of KSSP subscribing to all its publications. The circulation of *Eureka* and *Sastrakeralam* began to increase and at one stage it reached 43000 and 23000 copies respectively. Government had also supplied most of the schools with science kits, and many schools with slide and film projectors. There are about 800 16mm projectors in various schools put together. The attempts of KSSP to open up the 'kits' and to make regular use of the projectors are yet to succeed. The absence of (a) necessary software and (b) mechanism for circulating them are the major reasons.

The various issues taken up by KSSP, such as pollution, ecology, water-management, resources of Kerala, energy planning, philosophy of science have given the members and amongst whom several thousand teachers, an opportunity to enlarge their horizon. The large number of books which are being published by KSSP also have helped them in this aspect.

It was gradually becoming evident to the KSSP activists that some parallel efforts are to be made to devise a more meaningful curriculum for school education which is not so alien to our life. In 1977 it was decided that the KSSP should formulate, from its experience, an education policy for the entire state. Several documents have been prepared and several discussion-shops have been organized. In the meantime, especially during the past four-five years, there has been a tremendous going back from the national policy, on the side of the government. On the literacy front, language policy, secularism, neighbourhood school system, private control—on all these fronts the government has been moving away from the national policy.

Though the most literate state, illiteracy is not eradicated from Kerala. This fillip adult education programme got during 1978-80 was reversed and whatever remained became a fertile ground for corruption. English is being promoted consciously as medium of instruction, from lower primary onwards even in government schools. More and more recognised, unaided schools—pure business establishments—are being promoted at the expense of local government schools which are being gradually closed down. A very conscious antisecular language policy is being promoted, introducing Arabic in a large number of "Muslim Schools" and to compensate that, Sanskrit in "Hindu Schools". The concept of neighbourhood school system is

nowhere on the agenda. Scarce resources are being diverted to Medical Colleges, (in Kerala for each 900 newborn children one doctor is produced) and Universities, simply to satisfy the vested interests of small groups.

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Non-formal education only means activities outside the sector of formal education because KSSP's activities within the sphere of formal education too are non-formal in nature. The tools for and the objectives of non-formal education have been evolving over these years. During the last one decade KSSP might have organised tens of thousands of lectures on such varied subjects as, from atom to galaxy, origin and evolution of life; history of mankind; wealth of Kerala, energy, water and forest planning in Kerala, agriculture, irrigation, industrialization, ecology, health care, delivery system, harmful drugs, adulteration in food, clothing, shelter and culture, education, forest protection, water and air pollution, law for common man, war and peace, philosophy of science, scientific temper, science and imperialism and so on. The total number of people who might have attended these classes will be several million.

KSSP started its book publication programme in 1976 and since then it has been the main source of revenue for all its activities. Over the last six-seven years KSSP has published more than two hundred titles with a total face value of about Rs.50 lakhs. The age groups and subjects covered are very wide. Some books ran into several editions with copies totalling to about 30,000. These books can be broadly classified into :

Passive

- (a) Children's books
- (b) Popular books for adult laymen
- (c) Reference books.

Active

- (a) Agitation propaganda books and pamphlets
- (b) Study reports
- (c) Semi-text books.

The passive books are prepared without any specific and defined programme for their use. They are general science books covering a variety of subjects. The first set of publications named 'Gift Box' consisting of 11 volumes with a total face value of Rs.45/- ran into two editions with a total print run of 11000 copies. Another set of 50 books with a total face value of Rs.156/- called Science Cream (in contrast to Icecream) ran an edition with 8000 impressions. In 1981 another set of 10 Science Cream books were published. Some of these are used as specific reading material for children's leadership training camps and in Eureka talent tests.

Each book in the second 'active' group is prepared with a specific objective in view. The 'Wireman' was prepared as a text book for the training of working electrical wiremen under START (School for Technicians and Artisans), an ambitious programme launched by KSSP in 1976. It is still groping on the ground having failed to take off. The idea was to give those technicians and artisans in various trades who are good at hand but never had an opportunity for formal education some elementary theoretical training. Only in one trade, electrical wireman, this could be done. Many other trades like concrete worker, press worker, automechanic, lineman, electrician and motorwinding were contemplated but could not be carried out. Wireman is still an ongoing course. The text book has gone to eight editions.

"Eureka Guide", "One Thousand Quiz", "Myself, My Home and Surroundings", "I Will Become a Scientist", "Nature, Science and Society", "Ancient Civilization", "Environmental Protection", "Wealth of Kerala" are some of the books prescribed as "text books" for Eureka Talent Test and Sastrakeralam Quiz.

Several agit-prop pamphlets, on health, education, ecology, forest protection, industrialization, medium of instruction were published when the campaigns on these topics were organized.

Study reports on Silent Valley Project, Kuttanad Development Scheme, Pollution of Rivers, Agriculture in Kerala, Wealth of Kerala, Education and Health have been prepared with the specific objective of intervening in the respective spheres. An idea of the contents of these reports can be obtained from the following brief notes on some of them.

Nature, Science and Society

This is a course of lectures leading to the development of a historical and philosophical sense of science.

The essential point stressed here is that everything is in motion, there is nothing without motion and that motion is the mode of existence of matter. Then two questions are raised. What is time? and what is space? After analysing our understanding of both space and time it is concluded that space and time are specific ways of understanding motion of matter, that they cannot be separated from matter and its motion. There is no space or time without matter. The concept of matter-space-time continuum is thus established. Afterwards, the question of the origin of universe is analysed and since origin means prior non-existence and since 'prior' (i.e. time) cannot exist without matter, we come to the conclusion that the question is absurd that the UNIVERSE always existed.

Later on follow the course of evolution of the solar system, the formation of living things from non-living, the evolution of living beings,

the transition from ape to man, the role played by labour and collective life in this transition, the evolution of human society through paleolithic, neolithic, bronze and stone ages, from primitive society to slavery, feudalism, capitalism and socialism. The corresponding growth in science and technology too is analysed. Here again, in the realm of social reality, motion, i.e. change is emphasised.

Scientific Outlook

The phrase 'development of scientific world outlook among the masses' is a much repeated cliché. What is this scientific outlook? This understanding of the scientific outlook is derived from a study of the historical development of science tracing the origin of Botany in fruits and root gathering, Zoology in hunting, of material sciences in tool making, of dynamics in primitive weapons and so on. In the early times 'science' was synonymous with daily life experience. Hence, direct intervention with nature was the beginning of all knowledge. However just as man created the abstract 'tree' from the concrete mango, jack and tamarind, the abstract 'bird' from crow and eagle, those raw experiences are abstracted leading to new forms of intervention with nature. This means : from practice to theory and from theory to higher forms of practice. Practice is the starting point. This understanding forms the foundation of 'scientific outlook'.

Energy and Development in Kerala

KSSP had the occasion to study the overall energy situation in Kerala, the conclusions of which are being discussed at various levels. Unfortunately, the energy planners of the state are oblivious to the critical situation. KSSP came to the conclusion that at present Kerala, with no known reserves of coal or oil, is a highly energy deficient state, that concept of plentiful hydroenergy is in fact a myth, that domestic energy position is becoming more and more precarious and that the concept of electrical energy as a commodity to be sold for profit is wrong. KSSP had advocated large-scale import of coal from the coal quadrangle of India, establishment of coal-fired thermal stations (the accompanying problems of pollution of such plants should be amenable to control by the available technology) and argued for the establishment of coal dumps and briquetting plants at various centres, massive propagation of higher efficiency coal burning and wood-burning stoves for domestic purposes. But the State Electricity Board is still dead set against coal stations and the government has not understood either the economics or the ecological importance of higher efficiency wood-burning stoves. The KSSP is going about in its limited way, propagating them. It has conducted domestic energy consumption studies, with practically no expenses, but given sufficiently accurate data. The projection of electricity demand it has made is being proved to be more accurate than those projected by KSEB. KSSP is opposed to nuclear power plants for two reasons :

- (i) today they are unreal and costly, the 'technical' problems are too many, it involves a much extended period of construction and the energy is much more costly than from coal-burning thermal stations, and
- (ii) with such a high density of population as in Kerala, the consequences of a major nuclear accident are unimaginably high.

Irrigation

After its people, the most abundant wealth of Kerala is water, with an average of 3000 mm of annual rainfall. The steeply undulating topography can be considered either a boon or bane depending upon the way one uses it. Study of the experiences of the construction and utilization of major irrigation projects in the State has led KSSP to the following conclusions :

- (i) They have not served the purpose of providing irrigation water at the required places, at required times and in required quantities. This is due to two reasons:(a) necessarily non-uniform agricultural practices causing management difficulties and (b) consistent overestimates of projected benefits and exclusion of its adverse effects.
- (ii) The average capital cost of irrigation projects that are completed so far works out to Rs.30,000-40,000 per hectare which is incredibly high.
- (iii) Aggressive hillslope management has led to deforestation, soil erosion, floods and droughts.
- (iv) The most urgent need of the day is to make an all-out effort at afforestation of hill slopes, terracing, reducing run-off and increased reliance on ground water storage.
- (v) Minor irrigation schemes for tapping either surface or ground water can be managed better and are definitely much cheaper.
- (vi) No new major irrigation projects should be taken up, those projects in which only less than 20% of projected capital investment has been expended should be shelved for the present and all the available resources should be pooled for local irrigation projects (local being a more meaningful term than minor).

Ecology

KSSP has become known all over India and abroad because of the stand it has taken on the Silent Valley Hydroelectric Project. Its stand on this project may be stated in the following way :

- (i) The cost benefit analysis made by promoters of projects has a tendency to underplay costs and exaggerate benefits. It is in the

interest of the nation to have a 'devils advocate' to face the issue squarely and focus public attention.

- (ii) Much of the hidden social costs are either neglected or underestimated.
- (iii) There should be an environmental Impact Statement accompanying each project which can be debated publicly.
- (iv) Timber is big money. Unemployment is very high. Big money can purchase unemployed starving hands to work for them. Food for today is more important than ecological stability of tomorrow for the unemployed and starving. Educating and agitating for tomorrow is a much more difficult task. However only the people, conscious of the ecological implication, can save the forests. No governmental agency can save them.

On the Silent Valley Project its stand has been as follows

- (i) The Silent Valley is one of the biologically richest and oldest and least disturbed tracts of forests in the whole of India.
- (ii) It is the largest continuous stretch of forest in western ghats which can be protected.
- (iii) The amount of energy that can be obtained from it is quite small.
- (iv) Irrigation potential of the project is exaggerated.
- (v) Energy and water for the local population can be made available much quicker and surer as well as in a cheaper way from alternative sources.
- (vi) Therefore, this project should be taken up as one of the last hydro-electric projects in Kerala, and only if necessary then in the meanwhile more detailed study of the flora and fauna of the region should be made.

Pollution

Though Kerala is not an industrialized state even by Indian standards, its industrial area, Alwaye-Cochin belt, is one of the most polluted regions in the world. It is nearly a decade since KSSP had started a campaign against pollution. The State machinery such as the Kerala State Board for Prevention and Control of Water Pollution is known more for its inaction than anything else. A classic example was that of Chaliar river, which was polluted by a pulp factory at Mavoor owned by the Birlas. KSSP joined the struggle of the local people, conducted a study of the nature and causes of pollution and unleashed a major campaign against the polluting activity of the factory. People are now agitating against pollution in several other places.

Education

With more than sixty per cent of its cadre drawn from the field of education, coupled with continuous contact with students, it is but natural that KSSP has something to say about education. Based on its varied experience the KSSP has prepared a 'Document on Education' dealing with the system of education upto the secondary school level which is now being discussed at various levels. The major issues raised in the document are :

- (i) The purpose of education is to develop the personality of the individual to the fullest extent so that (a) he/she should be able to discharge effectively and efficiently the functions entrusted to him/her by the society and to contribute to the onward march of the society and humanity, (b) he/she should be able to appreciate the cultural heritage of his/her people and humanity as a whole and (c) he/she should be able to resist and defeat forces which come in the way of realization of the above two objectives.
- (ii) Present education does not serve this purpose. Instead of helping the development of the society it alienates the student from productive labour as well as from his own culture.
- (iii) Teaching methods destroy every initiative in the student. Examinations are so designed as to weed out the poor and the 'backward'.
- (iv) The value and concepts imparted are anarchic. It is an education to live in and to perpetuate a competitive society. Indian society is in transition. Education, instead of helping it, opposes this transition.

KSSP strongly advocated the mother-tongue as the medium of instruction. When KSSP emphasises the role of mother-tongue as the medium of instruction, it is not unaware of the need to learn other languages, both Indian and international. The former emphasizes the development of mental faculties of the child while the latter is intended for communication, interaction and building up of fraternity with people from other parts and countries.

Health

KSSP has been active in the field of health for the past 4 or 5 years only. Food is the best medicine one can give to the poor. Majority of the ailments arise from inadequacy of proper food and unhealthy living environment.

One of the activities in the field of health has been health camps. This is not intended as an ameliorative measure but more as an educative measure. KSSP has conducted several dozens of camps and hundreds of

interest of the nation to have a 'devils advocate' to face the issue squarely and focus public attention.

- (ii) Much of the hidden social costs are either neglected or underestimated.
- (iii) There should be an environmental Impact Statement accompanying each project which can be debated publicly.
- (iv) Timber is big money. Unemployment is very high. Big money can purchase unemployed starving hands to work for them. Food for today is more important than ecological stability of tomorrow for the unemployed and starving. Educating and agitating for tomorrow is a much more difficult task. However only the people, conscious of the ecological implication, can save the forests. No governmental agency can save them.

On the Silent Valley Project its stand has been as follows

- (i) The Silent Valley is one of the biologically richest and oldest and least disturbed tracts of forests in the whole of India.
- (ii) It is the largest continuous stretch of forest in western ghats which can be protected.
- (iii) The amount of energy that can be obtained from it is quite small.
- (iv) Irrigation potential of the project is exaggerated.
- (v) Energy and water for the local population can be made available much quicker and surer as well as in a cheaper way from alternative sources.
- (vi) Therefore, this project should be taken up as one of the last hydro-electric projects in Kerala, and only if necessary then in the meanwhile more detailed study of the flora and fauna of the region should be made.

Pollution

Though Kerala is not an industrialized state even by Indian standards, its industrial area, Alwaye-Cochin belt, is one of the most polluted regions in the world. It is nearly a decade since KSSP had started a campaign against pollution. The State machinery such as the Kerala State Board for Prevention and Control of Water Pollution is known more for its inaction than anything else. A classic example was that of Chaliar river, which was polluted by a pulp factory at Mavoor owned by the Birlas. KSSP joined the struggle of the local people, conducted a study of the nature and causes of pollution and unleashed a major campaign against the polluting activity of the factory. People are now agitating against pollution in several other places.

Education

With more than sixty per cent of its cadre drawn from the field of education, coupled with continuous contact with students, it is but natural that KSSP has something to say about education. Based on its varied experience the KSSP has prepared a 'Document on Education' dealing with the system of education upto the secondary school level which is now being discussed at various levels. The major issues raised in the document are :

- (i) The purpose of education is to develop the personality of the individual to the fullest extent so that (a) he/she should be able to discharge effectively and efficiently the functions entrusted to him/her by the society and to contribute to the onward march of the society and humanity, (b) he/she should be able to appreciate the cultural heritage of his/her people and humanity as a whole and (c) he/she should be able to resist and defeat forces which come in the way of realization of the above two objectives.
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doctors have participated in it. Apart from organising health camps, a number of KSSP publications deal with people's health. Based on its experiences, KSSP's approach to people's health may be summarised as follows :

- (i) Health care delivery does not mean provision for treating the unhealthy, but to keep the entire people physically and mentally healthy.
- (ii) Health care should be recognised as a basic right of citizens—it is not the charity of government or other institutions.
- (iii) Health care does not and should not mean only hospitals and drugs.
- (iv) Today, the modern health care system in India is controlled by the multibillion dollar multinational drug companies. Hospitals and health programmes are markets for their products.
- (v) The people have to wage a war against these companies to save themselves from harmful and useless drugs, which have been banned in most of the developed countries.
- (vi) The health of the people can be assured only through the combined and cooperative efforts of health, education and public health engineering departments.
- (vii) There is a wealth of medical knowledge in traditional systems, especially in ayurveda. They should be integrated and made one with the system of health services.
- (viii) Today Kerala is producing one doctor for every 900 newborn children. It is high time it shifted the accent from doctors to para-medical staff, especially nurses and other health workers.
- (ix) Medical education has to be thoroughly reoriented to incorporate the above aspects. KSSP has made use of the medium of people's arts to propagate these ideas.

These agit-prop activities have a really educative effect. For this purpose a new medium, that of art, is being tried during the past three years. Today KSSP is known in India for the "Sasthrakala Jatha" it conducts every year. The various topics that are dealt with in these Jathas are : Lopsided Development, Slavery to English, In Praise of learning, Science in Bondage, Schools for the Poor and for the Rich, Pollution, the Dilapidated Education Machine, Superstition, the Plight of Fishermen, Price Rise, Import of Agricultural Products, History of Kerala, Story of Stars, Nature of the Universe and Man, the Universal Man, Deforestation, Ecocatastrophe and so on. This medium is still being experimented with.

Assessment

As mentioned earlier since the programme is an ongoing one it is very difficult to make a full assessment. So far nobody has done any quantitative practical assessment about KSSP.

The internal assessment can be summarized as follows :

In the field of formal education the impact of KSSP though noticeable is minimal. The main reason is the powerful anti-national trend that has gained upper hand during the past few years. On every front, science education, language education, medium of instruction, examination, everywhere, one can see a going back. KSSP has not so far succeeded in arresting this backlash. But viewed optimistically, one can say that today KSSP is known in more than 80 per cent of the twelve thousand schools in Kerala; *Eureka* and *Sasthra Kerala* have a 'readership' of one lakh; most of the children's magazines are forced to carry a few science articles in each issue; each year about Rs.20 lakhs worth of children's science books are being sold. It has not yet reached the industrial and agricultural workers. Training of teachers and artisans requires more sustained and systematized effort. For this a new set up has been contemplated. "A Head and Hand School" to be set up by a separately registered body, the "National Association for Developmental Education and Training". In the field of 'Non-formal education', it can be said that today the public is sensitive to and aware of many issues about which they were totally unconcerned with a decade ago. Pollution, deforestation, health and energy are the topics which have attracted maximum attention. The controversies connected with Silent Valley, Chaliyar, Kuttanad Development were responsible for this. The various departments like Electricity Board, Health, Education, Environment, Public Works can no longer claim monopoly on opinion-making. In each of these fields KSSP has developed its own expertise and people look to them for collaboration. People are becoming more and more environment conscious. There is a surer indication that KSSP is becoming effective : vested interests have started attacking it from the one side branding it as red and revolutionary, as antireligious; from another side, accusing it as retrograde, as arm chair revolutionary and servile to the west and western science.

This indicates that KSSP is coming of age.

Rural Institute as an Educational Reform: A Case Study of Lok Bharati and Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth

M. B. Buch

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Historical Background

There were ten universities in India by 1920. Between 1921 to 1946, eight more universities were set up. The period 1921-1946, was a period of great political and social upheaval in the country. Internationally, the world was facing the consequences of the destruction wrought in the First World War. India was experiencing the effect of the First World War more acutely as the alien government was trying to set its house in order through more intensified exploitation of its colonies. The Indian people had heard about the success of the Socialist Revolution in Russia. This had a strong effect on the Indian youth. The Indian National Congress under the guidance and leadership of Gandhi had launched mass movements for Independence. The beginning of thirties had seen a powerful national upsurge in the background of the Great Depression in the world and the rise of fascism in Europe.

The Indian Educational System was geared to the requirements of the imperialist rulers. It aimed at preparing second level secretaries, clerks and not leaders. But Indian elite had gone overseas and they had returned with liberal education of the West. Political movement in India was greatly influenced through their participation in national politics.

The educational system was elitist in nature and content. Neither was it geared to the needs of an industrial society, nor to an agricultural community. Devoid of clear forward-looking objectives, the system was ineffective and a social drag. Gandhi could see the need for a national system of education. His pattern and philosophy of education—Basic Education—were presented to the country. The essence of this educational philosophy was that education should combine practice in the every day processes of living and working with formal training. Inspired by Gandhian philosophy of education and seeing the need to establish centres of national education,

several social workers began setting up a number of national educational institutions in various parts of the country. In Gujarat, Gujarat Vidyapeeth was set up in 1920, Dakshinamoorti Chhatralaya had come up in 1910 at Bhavnagar, Gram Dakshinamoorti was set up at Ambala in 1938. An alternate educational system took roots at Shantiniketan in the east. Social workers took initiative in setting up formal and nonformal centres of education all over the country till 1947 when the country became independent and was free to shape its educational system as it wished. The independent Indian inherited the educational system as shaped by the British rulers. A large segment of the rural population had no primary educational facilities. There were only 4929 secondary schools and seventeen universities in 1946—all in urban areas with educational content which was not socially relevant.

The changes that had taken place in the political and economic conditions of Indian society in the years that preceded the transfer of power on August 15, 1947, were of far-reaching significance; the educational progress during the first six years of the forties was also considerable. But these changes and this progress were nothing compared to the rapid developments in the years immediately following the attainment of Independence.

Post-Independence Developments

Immediately after independence, the Government of India focused its attention on reforming the educational system at the school stage as well as at the higher education stage. At the primary stage, basic education was already accepted as a system of education—nationally and pedagogically relevant. A number of basic schools had already been established. For the children of these basic schools, post-basic secondary schools were planned. There were a few universities in the country when it attained independence. It was inevitable that these universities were influenced by the conditions of Indian life prevailing at that time and also by the requirements of an alien government not committed to the development of the nation as a whole. Eightyfive percent of the Indian population lived in villages according to 1941 census. This vast population had been scarcely touched by secondary or higher education. The extreme poverty and lack of cultural opportunities of this population posed challenging problems. A system of education had to be planned out in tune with the ethos and the requirements of rural India. The country had already decided on the system of basic education at the school stage. The problem was to plan out a suitable system of higher education for the rural population. The Government of India had appointed a commission to report on Indian University Education under the chairmanship of late Dr. S. Radhakrishnan by a resolution No.55-5/47-D/3, dated 4th November, 1948. As the terms of reference of the Commission indicate, the Commission was appointed to look into problems of higher education

in the country in the light of India's decision to be a democratic republic. In its recommendations, the Commission made a strong plea for the expansion of facilities of higher education in rural areas.

The Commission recommended :

"The general advancement of rural India will call for an ever increasing range and quality of skill and training; to supply these and to meet the requirement of an educated citizenship, a system of rural colleges and universities is necessary. A new beginning is desirable, with freedom to create a distinctive tradition as to purposes, spirit and methods."

The Commission recommended the establishment of rural colleges and universities devoted to rural education and research. The Commission further recommended the establishment of a committee on higher education for rural areas for planning and implementing the programme of higher education in rural India. At the time when the Report of the Commission was published, there were a few voluntary bodies engaged in developing programmes of rural education at the school as well as the college stage. These institutions were the pioneering institutions started by people devoted to the cause of rural education. Following up the recommendation of Radhakrishnan Commission, the Government of India appointed a "Committee on Higher Education for Rural Area" in October, 1954, under the chairmanship of Dr. K.L. Shrimali, Vidya Bhavan, Udaipur. The terms of reference of this committee were :

- (a) to undertake a comprehensive survey and appraisal of promising ideas, institutions and experiments in the field of higher education in rural areas;
- (b) to determine that specific projects and institutions should be encouraged to carry on experimental work in this field;
- (c) to recommend a possible pattern for rural universities with particular reference to
 - (i) the aims, organization and content of higher education in rural areas,
 - (ii) its relationship to basic and secondary education,
 - (iii) other allied problems, and
- (d) to suggest ways and means of making education in the existing universities more useful and more closely related to rural needs and problems, so that a sound and reasonable uniform system of Rural Higher Education suited to our needs and resources may be evolved for the whole country.

The Committee submitted its report in January, 1955. The major recommendation of the Committee was the establishment of rural institutes

in the country. These institutes would help in breaking down economic barriers between the rural and the urban population. The rural institute would function as a college and training centre and as a centre for development planning for the entire community. The institute will be residential for students of both sexes and for the staff. The committee suggested the following courses to be provided at the rural institutes : (1) A three year diploma course in rural services; (2) a one year course for a teaching diploma; (3) a one year course for a teaching certificate; (4) a two year certificate course for overseers; (5) a two year certificate course for rural health workers (women); and (6) a two year certificate course in agricultural science. The two year certificate course for the overseers was converted into a three year diploma course in civil and rural engineering.

The committee recommended that the three year diploma course as well as the two and one year certificate courses should be open to candidates who had completed the higher secondary or post-basic courses. For administrative infrastructure, the committee recommended the establishment of a National Council for Rural Higher Education as an advisory body to the Central Ministry of Education and State Councils of Higher Education for Rural Areas in the Department of Education in the states. The most important recommendation of the committee was the selection by the Government for immediate development into rural institutes, five or six existing institutions which were already doing pioneering work in this field.

As a result of the recommendation of the Consultative Committee appointed by the Government of India, the following ten institutions were selected for development into Rural Institutes:

1. Visva Bharati, (Institute of Rural Service, Sriniketan) West Bengal,
2. Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya (Rural Institute of Higher Studies), Turki, Bihar,
3. Gandhigram, Madurai, Tamil Nadu,
4. Vidya Bhavan, Udaipur, Rajasthan,
5. Jamia Millia Islamia, Delhi,
6. Lok Bharati, Sanosara, Gujarat,
7. Shri Shivaji Lok Vidyapeeth, Amravati, Maharashtra,
8. B.R. College, Agra, U.P.,
9. Mouni Vidyapeeth, Gargoti, Bombay, Maharashtra,
10. Shri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya, Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu.

The selection was made out of 27 institutions which applied for selection as rural institutes. The institutions selected were mostly those who had a long standing and had made a positive contribution to the development of national education. They had come into existence to serve certain national needs and had played a significant part in the task of national reconstruc-

tion. These institutes had a background of rich experience in the field of rural education and what was more important from the point of view of the new educational venture, was the fact that the workers associated with these institutes were actuated by a spirit of idealism and social service.

Thus the Rural Institutes came into existence because of the national-minded workers who had made voluntary efforts to initiate an indigenous system of education for the rural areas, the general dissatisfaction with a system of education which catered to the requirements of an elitist class and which neglected the rural community and the teeming millions. The institutes owe their origin to the overall efforts at national development using education as a powerful tool. A free India could successfully develop a democratic way of life only if the masses were educated and thereby could participate in the national building activity.

Objectives

Lok Bharati, Sanosara in the Gujarat State and Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth, Gargoti in the State of Maharashtra have been selected for developing a study of the educational reform of Rural Institutes in the post-independence era in India. Attention is focussed in depth on Lok Bharati, Sanosara, and a general study is made of Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth, Gargoti, keeping the following objectives in mind :

1. What were the socio-political considerations that laid the grounds for the establishment of rural institutes?
2. What were the educational developments at Sanosara and Gargoti when they were selected as rural institutes?
3. What was the direction of reform and how was it implemented?
4. What were the specific features of the new programme which helped them to meet the community needs?
5. How did the reform of Rural Institute progress? Was it successful? Did it fail? Reasons for success or failure?

Methodology

This is an analytical study of a descriptive type. No efforts at obtaining quantitative data or quantifying the qualitative data have been made. The sources of data are the reports of the committees, institutional records and the persons connected with these institutions at the time of their establishment. A complete list of primary and secondary sources from which the data have been culled out is given under References.

Report

The report consists of

- (i) Introduction—problem, objectives, methodology,
- (ii) History of Lok Bharati, Sanosara,

- (iii) History of Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth, Gargoti,
- (iv) Educational Reform after thirty years—conclusions.

LOK BHARATI : DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH

Origin

To the people, it may appear that an institution sprang up in 1953 at Sanosara under the name of Lok Bharati. It may appear as if this was the first attempt to take education to the rural areas by some well-meaning social workers. It is not, however, so. The spirit behind the establishment of Lok Bharati was the imagination and commitment of a person Shri Nanabhai Bhatt. Shri Bhatt, born on 11th November, 1882, was a first class graduate of the Bombay University, became a headmaster of an English medium school, obtained his professional teaching qualification in 1905, completed his master's degree and became a professor in Samaldas College, Bhavnagar. Shri Bhatt was an educational thinker who dreamt of starting an indigenous system of education which would not alienate the children from the families and the students from the society. He started a hostel with a difference at Bhavnagar where the inmates lived like members of a family under the overall paternal care of the superintendent. This was Dakshinamurti Chhatralaya (28-12-1910). Dakshinamurti Chhatralaya was later on developed into a comprehensive school from K.G. to Class 11th. The institution was recognised by Gujarat Vidyapeeth for all academic purposes. In 1937 Gandhi put before the country the scheme of Basic Education. Shri Bhatt was attracted with the idea, convinced that India lived in villages and the educational efforts should concentrate at the grassroot level in rural areas. Shri Bhatt moved to a rural area-Ambala in the State of Bhavnagar and started an independent institution of basic education-Gramdakshinamurti in 1938. He believed that a dynamic prosperous village was the foundation of a healthy society. He believed that educated able persons should go to the villages, be one with the people and study and solve their problems. Shri Bhatt was 56 when he started the Gramdakshinamurti. He was influenced in the programmes of the schools by the folk schools of Denmark though his institution had a distinctive national character. When the children from the basic school came out, Shri Bhatt started the post-basic secondary school for them. When Gramdakshinamurti at Ambala completed 25 years, the country had attained independence and Radhakrishnan Commission had recommended the establishment of rural universities. In 1953 the first rural university with its own programmes, its own administrative and organizational structure and its own diplomas was established. This was Lok Bharati at Sanosara, established in 1953. Lok Bharati was primarily an institution for higher education in the rural areas. The post-basic secondary school at Ambala and other similar post-basic

secondary schools started in the Saurashtra region of Gujarat under the inspiration of Shri Bhatt were feeder institutions. It was, however, difficult to convince the people about the educational programmes of Lok Bharati at a time when the Gujarat University and Baroda University were established as statutory universities in Gujarat and colleges were coming up in an increasing number all over the country. Shri Bhatt started Lok Bharati with a small number of students and a batch of youngsters who would work as organisers, hostel superintendents and teachers. It was an uphill task challenging to Shri Bhatt and his co-workers. But the workers had the courage of conviction and gradually the parents started sending their sons and daughters to Lok Bharati for higher education.

Objectives

The aims and objectives of Lok Bharati, as stated by the founding fathers, are as under :

Lok Bharati aims at bringing higher education to rural areas by providing a programme of education in tune with rural conditions and rural needs.

Lok Bharati aims at rejuvenating rural India by training village youth for careers of service in rural areas, by conducting experiments and research in problems of rural areas and serving as an extension and a cultural centre for the rural folk.

Lok Bharati aims at developing openmindedness among youth who would study the latest scientific, agricultural and technological developments and adapt them for the betterment of rural community and rural development.

Lok Bharati aims at building a strong community in rural areas through providing a type of education that would generate in the students an active interest in the village life and develop in them insight and ability to tackle problems of daily life.

Lok Bharati aims at building a society based on the principles of equality and social justice as visualised by Gandhi. For achieving this, Lok Bharati aims at providing such life experiences to students as would develop in them self-reliance, initiative, cooperation and tolerance.

Lok Bharati stands for scientific inquiry into social, economic and educational problems of the rural community. It would, therefore, develop a programme of experiments and research in agriculture, horticulture, farm practices, rural education, etc.

Essential Features

- (i) The first essential feature of Lok Bharati is that it is a residential institution. It is compulsory for all students to live on the campus. Living a corporate life is an important learning experience for an all round development of students. For this, Lok Bharati provides

a residential block for a unit of thirty to forty students. For each block, there is a superintendent who takes personal care of every inmate.

- (ii) It is also a requirement for the staff of Lok Bharati to stay on the campus and participate in the community life.
- (iii) Training in a democratic way of life is provided through students' active participation in the day-to-day aspects of community living. In the hostels, students manage the hostels, their cleanliness, kitchen, water provision, etc. The store in each kitchen is also managed by students. All students are involved in maintaining good sanitary conditions through cleaning toilet facilities.
- (iv) Coeducation is considered to be an important feature of Lok Bharati. On the same campus, there are residential blocks for boys and girls. They study together and work together. They intermingle freely among themselves. Coeducation is considered a natural part of a healthy educational environment and necessary for a sound, balanced, emotional development of adolescents.
- (v) The examination system is entirely different from that prevailing in other educational institutions. The formal year-end examination has only 50 percent weightage in the overall evaluation of students' growth. The teacher who teaches is the examiner. There is a system of continuous evaluation of the student by the teacher all throughout the academic session. The evaluation takes into consideration the students' participation in the classroom, in the co-curricular activities and in the hostel life. During the examination, there is nothing like inspection or supervision. The students are not classified as first class, second class.
- (vi) In the Lok Bharati, there is no place for rewards and punishment. The motivation is more intrinsic rather than due to extrinsic conditions. There is no insistence on minimum attendance. Roll-call at the beginning of a class is not a custom. The teacher considers himself as a member of the classroom group trying to acquire new areas of knowledge and puts students on the path of self-development. Learning is a group venture where each individual contributes to group enrichment.
- (vii) Evening forum is a daily feature. The Lok Bharati community-students and the staff meet together for group prayer every evening. After the prayer there are discourses on various aspects of their community life. Disagreements and opinion differences are freely discussed. This results in a smooth community life free of tension. During these sessions, there are times when national and international events are also discussed. Students meet the guests of the Vidyapeeth during this session.

- (viii) Teaching methods encourage group learning, self-learning through seminars, group discussions and workshops. There is a programme of productive work integrated with teaching and added to the school curriculum. Each student undertakes independent project work which is compulsory for every student.
- (ix) Socially useful productive work programme as a part of the curriculum is an outstanding feature of the educational system of Lok Bharati.

Another feature of the educational programmes of Lok Bharati is the provision of earning opportunities on a part-time basis to needy students. The students work on a part-time basis mostly on farms or the dairy and thus meet part of their college expenditure.

Institutions

(i) Lok Sewa Mahavidyalaya: The first new institution for providing higher education set up at Lok Bharati was the Lok Sewa Mahavidyalaya (Institute of Rural Service). It was established in 1953. This was the first institute of its type in Gujarat. It provides a three year course after high school graduation. Lok Bharati awards its own diplomas. It is worth recording that thirty years ago, a small institute in a rural area started an educational programme giving its own diplomas and students joined it. The three year diploma course had three areas of specialization, viz., agriculture, Lok Shikshan (Rural education), and rural reconstruction. Apart from the academic subjects, an essential feature of this course is its close linkage with the life of the people in the immediate neighbourhood.

Agriculture is both a compulsory course and also an area of specialisation. A student offering agriculture as an area of specialisation has 60 per cent of the curriculum load in the field of agriculture and 40 per cent in other academic areas—Lok Shikshan or rural reconstruction. A student offering an area of specialisation other than agriculture has to take 40 per cent of curriculum load in agriculture. The educational programme leading to diploma offered at Lok Sewa Mahavidyalaya has all the elements of rural development. After three years, when the Rural Institutes were thought of, their three year diploma programme had a lot of common content with this course. Because of the foresight of the workers of Lok Bharati, a thought-provoking indigenous programme came into existence. The details of this course are given below :

I Year

- (a) Humanities : Gujarati, Hindi or English and History or Indian Civilization.
- (b) Sciences : Soil Science and Management, Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Health and Hygiene, Gardening.

- (c) Book Keeping, Elements of Economics and Principles of Gandhian Thought.

II Year

Specialisation in Agriculture—

- (a) Sciences : Agricultural Research and Statistics, Agricultural Engineering, Agricultural Chemistry, Crop Production, Animal Husbandry.
- (b) Humanities : Gujarati, Hindi or English, Education and Psychology.
- (c) Extension Education, Co-operation and Rural Economics and Gandhian Philosophy.

For Specialisation in Lok Shikshan :

- (a) Humanities : Gujarati, or English, Education and Psychology, Political Science, History, Indian Civilization.
- (b) Sciences : Ecology, and Crop Protection, Kitchen Gardening, Health and Hygiene and Field Management.
- (c) Extension Education, Rural Economics, Gandhian Philosophy.

Major Subjects for Lok Shikshan Specialisation : Any one subject to be chosen from the following :

English, Gujarati, Hindi, History, Economics, Co-operation and Panchayat, Educational Psychology, Sociology, Political Science, Hospital Management, Hygiene, Home Science, Social Reconstruction and Rural Extension.

Major subjects for Specialisation in Agriculture : Any one of the following subjects :

Co-operation and Panchayat, Field Management, Gardening and Forestry, Animal Husbandry and Dairy Science, Agricultural Engineering, Extension Education, Social Reconstruction and Rural Extension, Agricultural Botany, Agricultural Chemistry.

III Year

Specialization in Agriculture :

- (a) Crop Production, Botany, Field Management, Agricultural Chemistry, the Major Subject
- (b) Humanities: History, Political Science, World Religions, Literary Appreciation.
- (c) Educational Extension.

Specialisation in Lok Shikshan :

- (a) Humanities : Gujarati, Education and Psychology, History, Political Science, World Religions, Major subject, Literary Appreciation.

(b) Sciences : The Science of Progressive Farming, Nutrition and Nutritive diet.

(c) Educational Extension.

Thesis/Dissertation

Every student of the final year is expected to write a dissertation on any topic/subject related to major subject of specialisation. In the total assessment of the major subject, the dissertation carries a weightage of 25 per cent.

Internship

There is programme of internship—one month every year.

(ii) Lok Bharati Adhyapan Mandir (Primary Teacher Training College):

This is one of the old institutions of Lok Bharati. After the country became independent, the Saurashtra state decided to convert all primary schools into basic schools. Such schools required teachers trained in the philosophy and practice of basic education. The Saurashtra Government requested Gram Dakshinamoorti, Ambala to start a Basic Training College to prepare teachers for basic schools (I-VII). This is how the present Adhyapan Mandir came to be established at Ambala in 1948. In 1953, when Lok Bharati was established, the Adhyapan Mandir was shifted to Sanosara under the administrative and financial control of Lok Bharati. When this institute was started, the management had obtained the approval of the Government for full autonomy in curriculum development and examination. The Saurashtra Government had granted such an autonomy in 1948. This status was subsequently upheld by the erstwhile Bombay State and later on Gujarat State. Today Adhyapan Mandir enjoys complete autonomy in deciding its curriculum, training methodology and admission procedures. It conducts its own examination and awards its certificate which is considered equivalent to Primary Teacher Training Certificate issued by the Department of Education of Gujarat State.

The training programme of Adhyapan Mandir has all the characteristic features of the educational programmes of Lok Bharati. The trainees are exposed to variety of experiences of camp life. The various camps organised during the two years of training are pre-school education camp, work-experience camp, peace corps camp, literary activities camp, science fairs, rural development camp, school surveys camp, etc. The intake capacity of the institute is 90 trainees every year.

(iii) Lok Bharati Rural Institute : In 1956, the first meeting of the National Council for Rural Higher Education selected Lok Bharati as a Rural Institute. At the time of this selection, Lok Bharati was conducting two courses as described above—a three year graduate diploma course (centering round agriculture, dairy, animal husbandry, rural education; and rural reconstruction) and a two year certificate course in primary teacher training. The diploma was granted to Lok Bharati and the teacher training certificate also was granted by Lok Bharati. The diploma was recognised

only by Gujarat Vidyapeeth whereas the teacher training certificate was recognised as equivalent to the Primary Teacher Training Certificate granted by the State Government.

Lok Bharati had 260 acres of cultivable land and 400 acres of pasture land. A 'Goshala' with 100 animals was also being maintained by the institute. The institution had been able to secure a sum of Rs. 5 lakhs for the construction of a hostel and staff quarters some of which were already built. A large-scale construction programme was under way. During 1954-55, the institute had incurred a non-recurring expenditure of Rs. 1,55,150 on buildings, agricultural farm, goshala, library, etc. and budgetary provision existed for Rs. 7,25,500 on buildings and equipment in respect of Lok Sewa Mahavidyalaya—agriculture, dairy, animal husbandry courses, agricultural extension, agricultural experimental station and horticulture.

When the Government of India selected Lok Bharati as one of the ten Rural Institutes, Lok Bharati joined the national programme of higher education in rural areas. The National Council for Rural Higher Education recommended the following courses of study in the Rural Institutes :

1. A three year Diploma course in Rural Services,
2. A three year Certificate course in Civil and Rural Engineering,
3. A two year Certificate course in Agricultural Science,
4. A three year course for Rural Health Workers (Women),
5. A one year course for a teaching diploma, and
6. A one year course for a teaching certificate.

These courses were of a recommendatory nature rather than mandatory. Lok Bharati was already conducting a three year Diploma course very similar to three year Diploma course in Rural Services recommended by the National Council. Lok Bharati decided to add one more course, viz., the two year certificate course in Agricultural Science. One year certificate course of teacher training was also going on. Thus, when the Rural Institute was set up, Lok Bharati had two courses already going on and the third course (Agriculture) was added. It is worth noting that Lok Bharati was founded by a team of workers who held independent views about the nature and type of education that would suit the soil of the country. To them education was for the masses of rural area and not the rural classes. It was to be imparted through the medium of the mother tongue. When the National Council decided that English should be the medium of instruction, Lok Bharati found it difficult to accept. The workers felt that this was quite in contradiction to what they stood for. Lok Bharati strongly put up its case for the mother tongue as the medium of instruction. As the national leadership could not agree, Lok Bharati conducted its own examination and granted diploma. It was doing so before the rural institute was set up and

so it did not experience any problems. After some time, the National Council agreed to give the option of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction and examination. The first batch of 40 students for the two year certificate course in Agriculture Science appeared in the All India Examination in 1962. Thirtynine of them were declared successful and out of the seven students from all the ten institutes who secured first class, six were from Lok Bharati. The all-India first ranker was also from Lok Bharati.

(iv) **Lok Bharati Panchayati Raj Training Centre** : As a result of the acceptance of Balwantrai Mehta Committee Report, the Government of India accepted the principle of democratic decentralization of administration. On 1-4-1963 Panchayati Raj came into existence. The Village Panchayats assumed importance as they were entrusted with the administrative responsibilities of all the village level activities and reconstruction programmes. The Village Panchayat and its office-bearers were called upon to provide leadership to the people in the work of rural development and rural regeneration. This was a major step in the direction of establishing a society where there will be a large-scale involvement of people. Lok Bharati could see its role in this major task of national reconstruction. The programme of Panchayati Raj could function successfully only if the elected representatives and the paid executives had developed a proper understanding of the problems of rural development and the methods for motivating people and securing their involvement. Lok Bharati started Panchayati Raj Training Centre where a large number of short-term and long-term training programmes were offered. These programmes were primarily in-service programmes. The officers and the office bearers of Village Panchayats, Taluka Panchayats and District Panchayats attended programmes which were of a duration of three days to six months. The programmes aimed at developing the leadership of the village leaders, and developing understanding about nutrition and balanced diet amongst the members and officers of Gram Panchayats. The Government entrusted the responsibility of providing training to the officers of the Panchayat of 9 districts of Gujarat to Lok Bharati. More than 9000 officers have taken training in the course of last twenty years, 970 secretaries of Panchayats were provided training of a duration of three to six months. About 1200 secretaries have participated in three week orientation courses.

(v) **Lok Bharati Graduate Basic Training College** : The expansion of the programme of Lok Bharati continued in a phased way. With the establishment of the Rural Institute, a new awareness developed amongst the people in the surrounding area that there were ample opportunities for children joining the basic schools to prosecute their studies even after passing the high-school examination. There was a gradual increase in the number of post-basic secondary schools. These newly-started schools needed competent teachers to do justice to basic education. The ideal teacher for post-basic schools would be one who had received higher education geared

to the requirements of the rural society and a programme of teacher education based upon the philosophy and practice of work-centred education. A need was felt to prepare teachers for the post-basic secondary schools. Lok Bharati had already a long experience of preparing teachers at the primary level. The primary training college had completed more than two decades. In 1969, capitalising on the experience gained in preparing primary teachers for basic schools, Lok Bharati started a Graduate Basic Training College to prepare teacher educators for primary training colleges and secondary teachers for post-basic schools. The examination for this course is being conducted by the Gujarat Government. Lok Bharati has added its own characteristic features like the larger quantum of work, internship, attendance in various camps, community living, etc. The teachers of these institutions find placement in the post-basic secondary schools and the primary teacher training colleges. Quite a few of them join the Education Department as supervisors of basic schools.

(vi) **Non-Formal Education Centre—Lok Vidyalaya** : During 1970s, there was a great movement amongst the educationists in India to find out alternate systems of education. The institutionalised formal education had a number of limitations and constraints. Flexibility and innovativeness were needed if education was to work as a sharp instrument of social change. Non-formal system of education began to come up in a big way in the country. Lok Bharati could see the potential of this educational alternative. In 1979, Lok Bharati started Pandit Sukhlalji Lok Vidyalaya at Maidhar. The major programmes of this institution consisted of village campus, exhibitions and demonstrations, library organization, adult education, wall newspapers and bulletins, Balwadis, programme of adopting a farmer and a village, experimenting in new crops and horticulture, diffusion of innovations like gobar gas plant and smokeless fire places, organizing co-operatives, health centres, etc.

These programmes do not give certificates which would be helpful in getting a job. The programmes attempt to motivate the people for a programme of self-development through lifelong education. The programme aims at building up an awakened responsible citizen. A large number of people have been attending these programmes. Lok Bharati has kept this institution free from any grant.

Functions

The major functions of Lok Bharati can be broadly classified under three major headings—Education/Training, Research and Extension.

Education/Training : This is the major function of Lok Bharati. Facilities exist for a three year diploma course in rural services, two year certificate course in agriculture science, one year graduate teacher training, one year primary teacher training, training of workers attached to Panchayati

Raj Institutions. Apart from this formal stream of education/training, there is provision for non-formal education/training programmes. The institutions and the programmes they offer are already described in Section 2.4. The training programmes are quite flexible. They are always tuned to the changing needs of the rural community. The programmes aim at motivating rural youth to self-development for rural reconstruction. The training programmes have now completed more than twenty to thirty years. They have stood the test of time and have established their validity.

Research : The major area of research of Lok Bharati is agriculture. The research efforts are concentrated on a couple of problems. The scarce human and financial resources are not spread thin. In Gujarat, wheat cultivation occupies the second position in importance. Wheat is cultivated on 7 lacs of acres of land. From 1967-68, the researchers of Lok Bharati have concentrated on developing improved variety of wheat. Experiments have been undertaken with Mexican variety, Sonalika, Kalyansona, Sarbati Sonara, etc. After seven years of sustained research, a new variety Lok-1 has been developed. This is a high-yielding variety. The Gujarat farmers have earned lacs of rupees by adopting this variety. Lok-4 is another variety developed through research at Lok Bharati. It is interesting to note that students/trainees are involved in these researches right from the beginning till the research findings are disseminated. Lok-1 variety has been certified by ICAR. There are requests from foreign countries for this variety of wheat. In 1980, Lok Bharati sent 50 Kg. of Lok-1 seeds to Indonesia.

Like research and experiments in wheat cultivation, Lok Bharati has set up a dairy for training and research purposes. A series of experiments and studies have been completed on 'GIR COWS' with quite promising results. Experiments in cross-breeding of Gir Cows with foreign bulls are also going on. The Lok Bharati Dairy (Goshala) had 34 cows giving milk, 11 dry cows. The average annual yield of milk per milking cow was 2202 litres during 1981-82.

Extension : Extension programmes are conducted at Lok Bharati as a part of the students' curriculum and also as an independent programme. As a part of the curriculum, the students/trainees conduct adult education centres, occasional camps in nearby villages, agricultural practices demonstration, science and agricultural fairs, etc. The trainees of Graduate Basic Training College and the Primary Teacher Training Colleges organize educational exhibitions of teaching aids, instructional materials, etc. Teachers of rural primary schools are invited for academic discussions in seminars, symposia, etc.

Direct extension work is done by the teachers and extension personnel. The experts in agriculture and animal husbandry organize seasonal fairs every year where farmers attend in large numbers. Results of experiments in crops, new variety of grasses and animal husbandry are demonstrated and

discussed. The visiting farmers pass a day on the campus and discuss their problems with experts and understand the implications of research findings. The interesting feature of such fairs is that the farmers not only take new seeds, new farming practices or new agricultural implements but also provide new ideas of research by presenting their problems experienced during the practical work of farming.

Lok Bharati arranges crop competitions every season wherein farmers of surrounding villages take part. Prizes are given to those with record production.

In animal husbandry, Lok Bharati helps farmers in procuring improved cattle feed seeds, veterinary help and helps them directly by supplying breeding bulls to Village Panchayats.

The extension programme touches the cooperative movement also. Lok Bharati helps farmers organize Cooperative Societies of milk producers and secures market for their product.

Lok Bharati is associated with Intensive Area Scheme of the Khadi Commission, Sarvodaya Kendra Schemes, and Gandhi Nidhi Gram Seva Centre Scheme.

The Lok Bharati National Service Scheme, Rural Development Scheme sponsored by Aspi foundation and Lok Vidyalyaya at Maidhar are also major extension education institutions.

The education/training, research and extension functions of Lok Bharati have helped Lok Bharati to develop as a Centre of Higher Rural Education with a considerable autonomy of operation of educational programmes. In 1983, the academic institutions catering to the needs of rural children for higher education were : (i) Lok Sewa Mahavidyalaya, (ii) The Graduate Basic Training College and (iii) The Lok Bharati Adhyapan Mandir. The two year diploma course in Agriculture Science has withered away. There is no post-graduate programme leading to master's degree in any subject. In addition, the Panchayati Raj Training Centre and Lok Vidyalyaya at Maidhar were other institutes.

SHREE MOUNI VIDYAPEETH – DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH

Origin

Mouni Vidyapeeth was selected to be developed as the Rural Institute for higher education by the National Council of Rural Higher Education in the year 1957. The Vidyapeeth had started functioning on a modest scale when its founder-President Shri V.T. Patil established a Middle English School in June, 1946. This school continued to work for about 4-5 years and was then upgraded to a full-fledged high school. The founder-president had conceived of a rural education centre, which would provide education

at all levels to children in the rural areas. The establishment of the middle school was the beginning of what was to develop into a big educational complex. In the year 1951, Dr. J.P. Naik joined hands with Shri V.T. Patil and the team geared their joint efforts to the establishment of a rural education centre providing facilities to rural youth for education at all levels. In 1953, three institutions interested in rural education joined hands. These institutions were the Prince Shivaji Education Society, Kolhapur, the Govindrao Dharmadaya Sanstha, Kolhapur and the Indian Institute of Education, Bombay. A public trust was set up under the name of Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth. An executive committee consisting mostly of members nominated by the sponsoring institution was entrusted with the administration of the institution. The Government of India selected it to be a Rural Institute in November, 1957 along with nine other Rural Institutes in the country. The next five years was a period of rapid developments in the Vidyapeeth. A centre devoted to providing comprehensive educational facilities to the rural folk came into existence. Since 1957, there has been a perpetual expansion and growth of institutions and programmes till the Vidyapeeth received a set-back during 1974-75-76 due to certain lapses on the part of the ten administrators of the Vidyapeeth.

Objectives

The founder members of Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth were nationalist-minded social workers and thinkers who saw that education was necessary for rural reconstruction. Their motto was 'Rural reconstruction through education and education through rural reconstruction'. The major goals before the Vidyapeeth were :

- (i) to attempt a reconstruction of the life of the people by bringing desirable change in their knowledge, attitude and skills;
- (ii) to organize educational institutions and training centres at all levels and preparing the rural youth to develop scientific outlook and democratic ideals;
- (iii) to train teachers to work at all levels, to prepare extension workers, social workers and community leaders required for the reconstruction of rural life;
- (iv) to conduct experiments and research on problems confronting various aspects of rural life and rural reconstruction;
- (v) to publicise the findings of research and experiments conducted at the Vidyapeeth as well as those conducted elsewhere; and
- (vi) to enrich the rural community through extension education by the application of scientific knowledge and techniques to the rural problems.

Special Features

1. The Vidyapeeth has accepted that peace and tranquility can be obtained through *Knowledge of Reality*, *Sacrifice* and *Service*. The Vidyapeeth expects that the staff of the Vidyapeeth shall try to live a life of sacrifice, of unceasing pursuit of knowledge and of unflinching devotion to the service of the community. The staff shall strive to develop these qualities amongst the students also through establishing an intimate contact between teachers, students and the community and through properly organized programmes of formal instruction, work and activities.
2. The Vidyapeeth believes that the problem of Indian education is virtually the problem of rural education and that research and experimentation in rural education need the highest priority in any scheme of educational reconstruction. The Vidyapeeth is, therefore, located in a rural area and tries to serve the needs of the rural community.
3. The Vidyapeeth believes that social change can be brought about mainly through the education of those who form the majority living in the rural areas.
4. The Vidyapeeth seeks to bridge the gulf between higher and lower stages of education by locating all educational institutions in one campus and under the same management.
5. The Vidyapeeth believes that every member of the Vidyapeeth staff should try to participate in the work of every institution, thereby attempting to remove the sharp distinctions that have grown up between college teachers, secondary teachers and primary teachers.
6. Every member of the staff of the Vidyapeeth is expected to devote some time every day to voluntary social service in addition to his routine work. Moreover, the work of the Vidyapeeth will be so organized that every student will have plenty of opportunities to engage in voluntary social service in the community.
7. The Vidyapeeth places great stress on creating a democratic way of life at the Vidyapeeth both at the staff and the student level.
8. The Vidyapeeth discourages undue emphasis on book-learning and attempts to impart knowledge through practical experiences.
9. The Vidyapeeth stands for a regeneration of rural life in India through a suitable and a stable system of education. Its most important programme is to experiment for the discovery of new educational methods and techniques and train teachers and extension workers in using them.
10. The Vidyapeeth believes that an educational experiment would be creative only in so far as it retains the freedom to borrow good things from anywhere and even to venture out in fresh paths that no one might have attempted in the past.

Institutions

There are many constituent educational institutions under Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth. The educational complex provides facilities from pre-school education to post-graduate research in selected areas. A brief description of the institutions is given below :

- (i) *Smt. Laxmibai Koragaonkar Shishu Bhavan* was started on the campus in 1956 to provide pre-school education facilities to children. It also acts as a child-guidance clinic. Education imparted here is largely through play, story-telling, visual aids, etc. Fiftyfive children attend this nursery school. It is used as practising centre by training centres.
- (ii) *Jawahar Bal Bhavan* was taken over by Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth in 1952. Prior to this, it was a primary school run by the District School Board. It offers instruction for classes I to VII. It is developed as a practising school for training primary school teachers. To this regular school are attached two special schools, viz., an Experimental Single-Teacher School and an Ungraded Primary School. These are for experimentation and research purposes.
- (iii) *Shri Shahu Kumar Bhavan* was set up in 1946—the first institution to come up on the campus. It was started as a middle school and raised to the status of a full-fledged high school in 1952. Now, it is a multipurpose high school and provides academic, agricultural and technical courses leading to Secondary School Certificate Examination. It is partially residential.
- (iv) *Karmaveer Higher Rural Institute* was set up in 1958 as a Rural Institute to provide higher education to the students in the rural area. It was selected as a Rural Institute by the Government of India along with nine other Institutes spread throughout the country. It works at the graduate level like colleges under universities. Students who have completed their secondary education are eligible for admission. The Institute started in the year 1958. It offers courses of instruction approved by the National Council for Rural Higher Education. These courses are :
 - (i) Pre-diploma course (One year);
 - (ii) Three year Diploma Course in Rural Services with cooperation and social work as optional areas of specialisation;
 - (iii) Three year Diploma Course in Rural Services (Education);
 - (iv) Three year Diploma Course in Civil and Rural Engineering.

The three diploma courses are equivalent to degree level courses—professional in nature and suited to the educational needs of rural areas. The Rural Institute is fully residential. Forty per cent of

students get a stipend of Rs.20/- to Rs.30/- per month. The total strength of the Institute in 1978 was 340.

- (v) *Arts and Commerce College* was established in 1971 to provide higher education to the youths coming from rural areas but not interested in professional diploma courses offered in the Rural Institute. The college is affiliated to Shivaji University. It is partially residential.
- (vi) *Shri Udajirao Junior College of Education* started functioning in 1952 to impart training for one year and two years after Primary Certificate Examination and to prepare qualified teachers to work in primary schools in rural areas. In 1969, it was converted into a Junior college of Education providing two years training after S.S.C. Examination. The course is fully residential.
- (vii) *Acharya Jawadekar Adhyapak Mahavidyalaya* was set up in 1956 as the Graduate Basic Training College recognized by the Government of Maharashtra awarding diploma of D.Ed. equivalent to B.Ed. or B.T. of any statutory Indian university. It prepares qualified teacher educators in Basic Education. In 1962, it was converted into a College of Education and its main objective now is to prepare graduate teachers to meet the requirements of high schools and training colleges which have started in large numbers in rural areas. This College of Education is now affiliated to Shivaji University, Kolhapur. It offers one-year training programme after graduation. It is fully residential.
- (viii) *Shri Govindrao Koragaonkar Grameen Shikshan Bhavan* was established as a research centre in 1952 and was recognised as the post-graduate research centre to guide M.Ed. and Ph.D. students first by the Poona University and subsequently by the Shivaji University. It conducts research and experiments in rural education.
- (ix) *Composite Training Centre* started functioning from May 1967 on behalf of the Rural Development Department of the Government of Maharashtra. The predecessors of this Institute were the Social Education Organizer's Training Centre and Mukhya Sevika Training Centre started in 1958 under the sponsorship of the Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Community Development, Government of India, in 1958. These centres continued till 1967 when they were merged together and the present Composite Training Centre came into existence. The centre caters to the training needs of the intermediate level officials and non-officials working in the Community Development Programme and Panchayati Raj. Short-term courses with a duration of two to ten weeks are offered.

Only deputed candidates are admitted to the training programmes. Private candidates are not admitted. The training capacity is 50 per course. It is fully residential.

- (x) *gram Sevak Training Centre* started functioning in 1964. This Centre is sponsored by the Rural Development Department of the Government of Maharashtra. It conducts general training courses of six months' duration and upgraded courses in intensive agriculture of one year duration for deputed Gram Sevaks. It also conducts short-term courses in applied nutrition for those who are involved in the implementation of Applied Nutrition Programme through Panchayat Samities. The training capacity for both the courses is 100. No private candidate is admitted. It is fully residential and stipend is paid to trainees during the training period.
- (xi) *Panchayat Raj Training Centre* was established in 1962 to impart training to non-officials at the grassroot levels. It trains Sarpanchas, Panchas and Nyaya Panchas who are working in Gram Panchayats and Nyaya Panchayats. It imparts training both at the headquarters and through peripetatic teams. The training period varies from three days to fifteen days. The training centre is sponsored by the Rural Development Department of the Government of Maharashtra.
- (xii) *Industrial Training Institute* came into existence in 1969 to offer training facilities in industrial skills. It provides trade training of two years' duration in turner, fitter and electrician trades and one year training in motor mechanics. The entrance qualification for turner, fitter, motor-mechanic trades is ninth standard passed and for electrician trade, S.S.C. passed. It has an intake capacity of 50 and it is partially residential.
- (xiii) *Community Polytechnic* was sponsored by the Government of India in the Institute of Civil and Rural Engineering in 1979-80. The additional staff for this programme sanctioned by the Government is five instructors. The Community Polytechnic undertook the need surveys of five villages during the years 1979-1982 and conducted training programmes for wiremen, carpentry, tailoring, radio-mechanics, pottery, sericulture, etc.
- (xiv) Out of campus institutions under Mouni Vidyapeeth are: (a) **Daulat Vidya Mandir** at Madilage Budruk (a secondary school), (b) **Kumar Bhavan** at Shengaoon (a secondary school), (c) **Shri Mouni Maharaj High School**, Patgaon, (d) **Kur High School**, Kur, (e) **Kumar Bhavan** at Karadwadi. There are more than 20 Balwadis run by Vidyapeeth on behalf of the State Social Welfare Board.

Functions

The work of Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth comprises four functions, namely, education/training, research, extension and publications.

Education/Training : The prime function of the Vidyapeeth is to run various educational institutions and training centres at all levels. The main purpose is, therefore, to provide different types of education at various stages so that rural youth is not deprived of opportunities of higher education. For this reason, while starting, developing or adding any new institution or instructional programme, the speciality of rural character is always maintained, protected and nourished. It always looks forward to building up such institutions and training centres which would provide good secondary and higher education in the context of the requirements of rural youth. The goal of all programmes is to motivate village youth for rural development. The teachers are trained to work in rural schools. Extension workers are trained to identify innovative practices developed by people in rural areas and disseminate them. Agriculture extension workers take innovations and farm practices to farmers so that their output is increased resulting in improving their economic conditions. The educational programmes are linked to the changing needs of the rural community. The education and training centres through which the educational programmes are implemented have been described in 7.3.4.

Research : The second major function of the Vidyapeeth is to undertake, promote and coordinate research of various institutions. The research at Vidyapeeth attempts to provide solutions to immediate problems in the region. Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth has established a comprehensive research unit for all educational institutions pooling funds and personnel with the intention to undertake various research studies connected with problems of rural life and particularly rural education. The unit has already completed a few researches on some of the significant problems of rural primary schools. The G.K. Institute of Rural Education has done a commendable work in rural education studies. This unit directs its efforts to devise new research methods and techniques in the context of village situation that could aid rural development. Some of the important research studies completed to date are : (i) An experimental study of the syllabus of primary classes—grade 1 to grade 4 in single teacher schools; (ii) An experiment in continuing education for children leaving grade IV after the compulsory age limit; (iii) The impact of bilingualism on the progress of children in primary schools; (iv) An experiment in teaching in single teacher schools in rural areas; (v) A study of the dropouts at the secondary school level; (vi) Use of audio-visual aid and its impact on social education; and (vii) An experiment in the organization of instruction in an ungraded school.

Extension : One of the most important functions of Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth is extension work. The Vidyapeeth has a comprehensive

extension wing wherein financial resources, materials and personnel of all institutions involved in extension activities are pooled together to cater scientific knowledge and services to rural people in a planned and integrated fashion. The purpose of the extension wing is to help the people make their profession more profitable, village homes more comfortable and rural communities more satisfied by inculcating in them new knowledge, attitude and skills. The main function of this wing is to carry the results of experiments and research to the very doors of the village people and in turn bring problems for undertaking new research and experiments. Extension work of the Vidyapeeth helps to link and establish functional relationship between the Vidyapeeth and the rural community. Vidyapeeth believes that there is a need for a close involvement of the students and the trainees in the extension work. Extension work helps the students to develop habits of co-operation, fellow feeling and social responsibilities, through active participation in the community work and community life. Through extension activities, Vidyapeeth locates the problems and next studies these problems analytically and scientifically with a view to finding answers to these problems.

As a part of extension activities, the Vidyapeeth has adopted 20 villages within a radius of 8 kms for intensive extension work and it has adopted 30 more villages from two talukas for extensive extension work. It is in further contact with 50 more villages where it works as and when it receives invitation. The extension department organized shramadan camps, social education centres, mahila mandals, youth clubs, adult education classes, circulating mobile libraries, family planning and health services, school improvement programmes, cooperative extension work, kitchen-gardening, better agricultural practices, engineering extension activities, nutrition education, defence education and leadership learning.

The primary training college of the Vidyapeeth has a special department of extension services. The extension programme here is directed towards in-service education of primary teachers. The training college organizes periodic extension programmes for teachers of primary schools where new methods of teaching, new ways of curriculum and instructional organization are discussed. The teachers are encouraged to take up small-scale experimentation on problems of small rural schools. It is through this extension department that the findings of educational research completed at the Vidyapeeth as well as within and outside the country are disseminated to the teachers of the primary schools.

Publications : The dissemination of new knowledge and new practices is done through the extension programmes. However, an affective dissemination can take place only when the clients are given packages of better farm practices, better educational practices and other research findings in printed form. Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth is running a publication unit to make the results of the experiments carried out by the Vidyapeeth known

to the public at large. It has published a number of books connected with rural reconstruction programme. It is regularly publishing a quarterly journal called *Grameen Shikshan* on behalf of the G.K. Institute of Rural Education for the last 20 years. It used to publish a quarterly in English known as *Rural Education Review*.

Starting with a single middle school in 1946, Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth has grown into a big educational complex in a rural setting. It caters to the educational needs of the rural community at all levels. The institutions catering to the needs of rural children for higher education as in 1983-84 are (i) Karmaveer Hire Mahavidyalaya—a degree college affiliated to Shivaji University, Institute of Civil and Mechanical Engineering—a Polytechnic recognized by the Directorate of Technical Education, Maharashtra State and two colleges preparing teachers at the elementary and secondary levels. There are adequate facilities for post-graduate courses leading to M.A. and M.Ed.

RURAL INSTITUTES DURING 1953-83

Lok Bharati and Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth came into being in the year 1953. The Organisers of Lok Bharati had a rich experience in the organisation of basic and post-basic schools. The first institution started at Gargoti also was a middle English school. The founder members of both the institutes were idealists who dreamt of starting model centres of rural education catering to the educational needs of the people residing in rural areas. They aimed at achieving a programme of rural reconstruction through an innovative educational system tuned to the changing requirements of rural society. The workers associated with these institutions had been connected with the then prevailing system of education. They had realised the limitations of that educational system which was elitist, not tuned to the nation's needs and which alienated children from the society. They had realised that the vast majority of Indian people who lived in villages in abject poverty and ignorance needed a different education. A system of education free from dogmatic approach and adequately flexible, a system of education which would motivate the rural youth in undertaking cooperative work for rural rejuvenation, a system of education which integrated education with productive work—only such an educational system would accelerate the change process in the social, economic and the cultural life of the rural people. They attempted to build such an educational system through these institutes of rural education which would provide facilities of school education as well as higher education for the rural youth. The founding fathers aimed at setting up rural universities. The workers connected with both the institutions were social workers of long standing. Shri Nanabhai Bhatt of Lok Bharati was an educational thinker, a political leader and a social worker.

Shri J.P. Naik of Gargoti whose imagination could build up Gargoti was an educational wizard of international fame. He always dreamt of an indigenous system of rural education and his thinking has a strong imprint on the national educational institutions.

These dignitaries did not experience much difficulty during the forties. The political conditions were favourable to national-minded workers. In the early fifties, their efforts had a support of the recommendations of some important education commissions. They built up these institutions in a most favourable climate.

When these institutions were selected as Rural Institutes in 1956-1957, Lok Bharati was very clear in its goal and target. It took care to see that its programmes planned according to its own thinking, continued to develop. It had its three year diploma of rural services with Gujarati as the medium of instruction and examination. Mouni Vidyapeeth started such a diploma only when sponsored and financed by the National Council of Rural Education along with other diploma courses in Civil and Rural Engineering and later education.

Expectations from the Reform

The nationalist educational thinkers closely connected with the establishment of Rural Institutes perceived the reform as a promising innovation of far-reaching importance. The reform was expected to result in the development of an educational structure radically different from those existing during those years. The newly established Institutes were to enjoy freedom for creative education. They were to develop an autonomous way of functioning; they were to develop a spirit of experimentation so that they could plan and develop innovative programmes and practices. Their educational structure and administrative machinery was to be adequately flexible to respond to the changing needs of the rural society in a period of transition. In view of these expectations of the educationists from the Rural Institutes, it is worth examining the following questions :

- (i) What type of autonomy did the Institutes enjoy?
- (ii) In what way did their programmes make a radical departure from the prevailing educational programmes?
- (iii) What curricular, methodological and other innovative programmes or practices could the Rural Institute develop?
- (iv) What does official evaluation say about these Rural Institutes?

Autonomy : Lok Bharati had developed as an autonomous organization. Its diploma was planned by its workers. It was neither tied to a university nor tied to a government department. It conducted its own examination and awarded its own diploma from 1956. It was only in 1964 that the Gujarat government gave recognition to this diploma. Lok Bharati

had a Primary Teachers' Training College. Right from its inception, it had been granted an autonomous status—autonomy regarding curriculum, instructional programme and examination. Even when Lok Bharati's three year course of Rural Services got affiliated to Saurashtra University, the university had given complete autonomy to Lok Sewa Mahavidyalaya which ran this degree course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Rural Development.

When the National Council of Rural Higher Development insisted on English as the medium of examination, Lok Bharati did not accept the course and the money accompanying the course. Only when the National Council agreed to mother tongue as the medium of instruction and examination did Lok Bharati send its students of two year certificate course of agricultural science for the Council's examination.

Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth enjoyed autonomy in so far as it was free from university linkage. But it had to fall in line with other university/institutions, when the Institute was affiliated with Shivaji University.

Departure from Prevailing Programmes : The three year diploma course in Rural Services, the D.R.S. (Education), three year diploma course in Civil and Rural Engineering were radically different from courses of the universities. They had heavy rural orientation; they had programmes of social services, working with the community and students' obligatory involvement in extension work. The three year DRS (Education) developed at Gargoti was a radical departure from the teacher preparation programmes going on in the country.

Innovations : The autonomy and consequent flexibility supported and encouraged the workers in both the Institutes to develop innovations in curriculum, methodology, etc. These are discussed here.

- (i) The major curricular innovation was contemplated, designed and introduced at Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth. This was in the area of preparing teachers at the secondary level. One of the objectives of the Rural Institutes included preparation of workers for rural areas. Teachers constituted an important category of workers. The problem before the educationists was to prepare teachers with proper attitudes and a strong grip over contents of school subjects. This could not be achieved by a nine month course.

It was planned to develop a three year course of teacher preparation after the preparative diploma year. Such a course would integrate academic subjects with pedagogy. The course was scrutinised by a committee consisting of the representatives of the Ministry of Education who were to finance the innovation, representatives of the Maharashtra State who were to give recognition and equivalence to B.Ed. for employment and the represen-

tatives of Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth who were to implement the innovation. This course was introduced in 1963. This was a major break-through in methods of preparing teachers for rural areas. The innovation met with resistance from the education faculty of Shivaji University who did not give eligibility to students with this diploma for admission to M.Ed. In 1972, when the affiliation of the Rural Institute with Shivaji University became a *fait accompli*, the three year degree course was converted to four year course of B.A. B.Ed. (Special). The course is becoming quite popular with a considerable number of students applying for admission. The innovation did not wither away. It continued with some modification. It may be remembered that a four year course of teacher preparation was designed by NCERT. The course was suspended for a couple of years but started again. The integrated course at Gargoti was never discontinued.

- (ii) Three year diploma course in Rural Services of Lok Bharati has certain innovative features. The course is residential. It involves integration of work and study. The students have to stay in villages for field work for one month every year - 350 hours of productive labour is a compulsory component of the programme. Participating in the extension programme by a student is essential. These are some of the innovative features of the programme of Saurashtra University.
- (iii) Work-Centred Teacher Education : This is a teacher education programme of Lok Bharati. The Graduate Basic Training College (Adhyapan Vidyalaya) and the Primary Teachers' Training College (Adhyapan Mandir) prepare teachers through a work-centred teacher education programme. Work is organized round the year. Some of the trainees work during winter and summer vacations also. The work is organized round agriculture. It has two aspects— theoretical and practical. Theory is not necessarily taught in the classroom. It is taught on the farms and the fields. It is taught near the cowshed and the irrigation tank. The approach is more non-formal rather than formal. The craft syllabus is very flexible. Lok Bharati is in contact with research organizations and new knowledge generated through research is continuously fed to the syllabus. The practical work is provided through group work and individual work on assigned plots. Individual work is mostly confined to kitchen gardening. Every student maintains a record of the work done in terms of hours spent on the job.
- (iv) Internship : Provision of internship in schools was a special feature of the teacher education programmes at Sanosara and Gargoti.

Students are drafted to selected schools in the rural area. The internship has a duration of three weeks at Gargoti and one month at Sanosara. During this internship period, trainees participate in all types of activities of the school. They experience community life in residential schools (Sanosara), participate in production activity, undertake survey of rural people's needs; and such other work. At Sanosara, internship is further supplemented by off-campus teaching in rural schools. The duration is flexible.

- (v) **Training Methodology :** The examination of the various aspects of training methodology reveals that the entire approach to training is the enquiry approach or the problem solving approach. The problem solving approach is based on self-directed learning and learning through group discussion. It is evident from the analysis of training methodology that it is activity-based and experience-based. This is the innovative aspect of training methodology. Training methodology tries to integrate theory and practice and utilizes community resources as training situations and learning aids. For Sanosara, an experienced farmer has a role to play in training teachers for rural schools. The impact of this innovative training is clearly seen in the work of teachers who could set up a gas plant using biogas generated from leafy vegetables and green leaves.
- (vi) **Innovations in Community Services :** There are a number of innovative programmes and practices in both the Rural Institutes—Gargoti and Sanosara. Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth has set up an innovative programme through what is known as Community Polytechnic located in the Institute of Civil and Rural Engineering. A number of socio-economic surveys have been conducted during the years 1979 to 1982. Based on these surveys, short-term training courses of wireman, carpentry, tailoring, radio-mechanics, etc. have been conducted. This activity is a new way of organizing community services.

These are some of the illustrations of innovations developed in these institutions. There are many more—in the hostel life, in the field work, etc.

Findings of Official Evaluation: Rural Institutes were only fourteen in number. The Planning Commission, the U.G.C. and the Ministry of Education were concerned deeply with this reform. The Planning Commission had a committee to evaluate plan projects (COPPS). The U.G.C. also appointed a committee to study the programmes of the Rural Institutes. The Ministry of Education appointed a committee to review the programme of the Rural Institutes. The observations of these committees are important for the future of the reform. Important observations made by these committees are given below :

1. Report of the Committee on Plan Projects set up by the Planning Commission in 1963 examined the working and the impact of the Rural Institutes on the rural life. Its observations and on-the-spot studies left no doubt about the utility of the scheme. "It (rightly) felt that only a limited number of Rural Institutes widely scattered were much too small an experiment". It recommended certain improvement in courses and curricula and suggested that the future planning of a rural institute should be done in consultation with the state governments.
2. The U.G.C. Committee in 1964 considered the fact that the Rural Institutes had special features in their programmes of higher education in the rural areas and had developed over the years new techniques of teaching and studying rural problems through extension programmes and village works which formed an integral part of the courses of study. It recommended strengthening of these institutes through the establishment of special courses of study. The Committee further suggested that some of the well-developed institutes be deemed as universities and the other institutes may either get affiliated to these 'deemed universities' or to neighbouring universities. The UGC resolved in September 1966 that the Central Government be advised that the Rural Institutes at Bichpuri (Agra), Gandhigram and Coimbatore be deemed as universities. The suggestion, however, fell through because of the states either not agreeing to the proposal or declaring inability to shoulder the financing part of the proposal.
3. Government of India appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri G. Ramchandra to review the organization and functioning of the Rural Institutes. The Committee submitted its report in October, 1969. It studied the reports of the Institutes obtained data through questionnaires and interviews. It attempted to assess the impact of the Institutes on the neighbouring rural community. Some of the relevant observations of the Review Committee are stated below :
 - (a) The Rural Institutes have achieved varying degrees of success in realizing the aims and objectives set out in the scheme of Rural Higher Education. The Sanosara Institute has fairly succeeded and the Gandhigram Institute has largely succeeded in achieving these objectives. (P.33).
 - (b) The Rural Institutes have made efforts to make an impact on the nearby rural areas. The work has been done in the Extension Departments at the Rural Institutes at Amravati and Gargoti. The Gargoti Institute is stated to be essentially rural in character and functioning.

- (c) Regarding the employment of the products of the Rural Institutes, the Review Committee notes that the products of the Indore Institute have not found any difficulty in obtaining employment. Most of the products of Rajpura and Sanosara Institutes have been able to find proper employment in agencies engaged in rural work. Eightyfour per-cent of the post-graduate courses, 68 per cent of the Rural Services course, 99.8 per cent of the Civil Engineering course, 79 per cent of the Agricultural Science Course and 88.5 per cent of the Sanitary Inspectors Course students passing out of the Rural Institutes have been employed. The Committee has also observed that in Maharashtra, the products of agricultural school are preferred. The products of 1967, about 18, at Gargoti and about 138 at Amravati have not been employed,
- (d) The Committee also showed its concern about the falling enrolment of students in some of the courses. This indicated that the students in the rural area were gradually losing interest in the programmes of the Rural Institutes.
- (e) The Committee also pointed to the fact that agricultural universities were coming up and these universities had a strong programme of extension work.
- (f) Lastly, the Committee observed that social outlook was rapidly changing. Gradually, the difference between an urban area and a rural area was disappearing.

The Committee made recommendations on courses of studies, teachers' salaries, administration, organization and financing of Rural Institutes. It made an important recommendation on the future status of Rural Institutes. According to this recommendation, the Rural Institutes could be either :

- (i) affiliated to a Federal University of Rural Higher Education which may be set up by the Government of India, or
- (ii) affiliated to Jawaharlal Nehru University, or
- (iii) continue to be under the National Council for Rural Higher Education with certain modifications, or
- (iv) allowed to be affiliated to the universities in which region they were situated.

New Set-up of Lok Bharati and Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth

After the recommendation of the Review Committee, there was a stir among the Rural Institutes. It was felt that very soon the financing of the Institutes will be passed on to the State Government. Lok Bharati and Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth had to decide their future set-up.

Lok Bharati had maintained a loose link with the National Council for Rural Higher Education. It was offering two year Certificate Course in Agricultural Science. But after this course, the successful candidates were permitted to join the third year of Lok Bharati's Three Year Diploma in Rural Services. In 1968, Lok Bharati had the Three Year Diploma Course in Rural Services, two year Certificate Course in Agricultural Science, two year Course for Primary Teachers' Training and Panchayati Raj Training Centre. In June 1968, impressed by the useful work being done by Lok Bharati, Saurashtra University invited Lok Bharati to join it as the Faculty of Rural Development. It was also given an autonomous status within the set-up of the university. This status was recognized by the Gujarat Government. The graduates of the three year Course in Rural Services were now to receive the Saurashtra University Degree of Bachelor of Rural Development (B.R.D.)

Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth had following courses : Three year diploma in Rural Services, three year Diploma in Rural Services (Education), three year Diploma in Civil and Rural Engineering, two year Course of Primary Teachers' Training, one year course of preparing teachers at the secondary level, an Arts and Commerce College, G.K. Institute of Rural Education, Composite Training Centre, Gram Sevak Training Centre, Panchayati Raj Training Centre and a few secondary schools. The Karmaveer Hire Rural Institute was merged with the Arts and Commerce College. The DRS (Rural Services) was merged with the BA programme of Shivaji University with specialisation in cooperation, social work along with other traditional areas of specialisation. The DRS (Education) Course was converted into B.A. B.Ed. (Special) as an integrated four year teacher preparation programme of the Arts and Commerce College now renamed as Karmaveer Hire Mahavidyalaya. The three year Diploma Course in Civil and Rural Engineering was recognized as the Diploma Course by the Directorate of Technical Education of the Maharashtra State. It was located in the Institute of Civil and Rural Engineering—one of the Polytechnics of the state. There was, however, one difference from other Polytechnics in that students could take one additional course of Rural Engineering (100 marks theory, 50 marks practical work and 50 marks for viva).

The linkage of both the Rural Institutes with the National Council for Rural Higher Education came to an end by 1972. There have been mixed feelings about the educational reform. When the Government of India withdrew, the programme got diluted in many institutes. However, the reform did result in some good models of innovative practices and innovative methods discussed earlier.

Conclusions

Reforms which have large-scale financial implications have always been in rough waters when the Government of India withdrew financial

support. In case of Rural Institutes, there were other factors in addition to finance for the overall dilution of the programme. Some of these factors are presented as conclusions derived from this study.

- (i) Right from the beginning, the Government of India had avoided a national dialogue on the organisation and administration of rural higher education. The issue requiring a clear understanding was the nature of the academic structure at the apex which would steer the academic programmes of Rural Institutes. Should it be the existing University Grants Commission or should a parallel body be established? What would be the institution to grant degrees? Should the Rural Institutes be given autonomy to give their own degrees? Should they be affiliated to the neighbouring universities? Should there be a new federal university? Should they be affiliated to Jawaharlal Nehru University? Or, should some of them be given the status of 'Deemed Universities' and the Rural Institutes affiliated to any of them? No serious effort was made to take any firm decision and the result was a sort of uncertainty prevailing all throughout the period of existence of Rural Institutes.
- (ii) When the decision was taken to upgrade three Rural Institutes to the status of 'Deemed Universities', the state governments either did not agree in principle or they were unwilling to accept financial commitment or both. This indicates that in absence of a **firm national policy** about the status of rural higher education, the proposal fell through because of reluctance of the centre and the states to finance the programme of rural higher education at a time when urban-oriented universities were rapidly coming up with finances flowing from the states and the centre.
- (iii) The fact that the Government of India insisted on English as the medium of instruction in the Rural Institutes indicates how unrealistic were the perceptions of educational administrators about the nature and content of rural higher education.
- (iv) A comparison of the genesis of the institutes at Gargoti and Sanosara indicates the part played by the social leaders in setting up the Rural Institutes. Both had the advantage of committed educational thinkers as the founder members. Gargoti was not fortunate to have the presence of late Dr. J.P. Naik for a long time during the formative period. Lok Bharati had late Shri Nanabhai Bhatt and then Shri Manubhai Pancholi for a number of years. This is one of the reasons for Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth to lose its vigour of rural orientation and for Lok Bharati to sustain its vitality in the midst of urban onslaught. India has always witnessed the impact of powerful social leaders on many of its programmes. Rural Institutes have not been exceptions to this national feature.

- (v) With the rapid urbanisation process spreading over the country, an unfavourable opinion started developing even among the rural elites about the nature, content and quality of programmes offered by the rural institutes. Gradually, the students started losing interest in the courses as revealed by the enrollment trends in most of the courses. This phenomenon also did not help the further development of rural institutes.
- (vi) The neighbouring universities could not appreciate the programmes of Rural Institutes. When the rural institutes approached the universities for affiliation, they had to surrender whatever little academic autonomy they had enjoyed. In the case of Lok Bharati, the Saurashtra University adopted a very favourable attitude and the result is the present status of Lok Bharati and its programmes which are heavily rural-oriented.

The experience of the Rural Institutes clearly underlines the need for a national policy on education and a national programme in tune with the national policy. Rural education has not to be looked upon as an inferior type of education. It is the **education** for national reconstruction and has to be treated as such. Political commitment is needed for such an educational system to develop, sustain and survive.

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Part Two
Making Education Relevant



Technical Education in India: Development of Technical Education in India (1921-1980)

Biman Sen

Introduction

In the field of education, Technical Education is relatively a newcomer in comparison to others. In fact, it is bye-product of the "Industrial Revolution". The Industrial Revolution introduced a new element in the concept of production and distribution, and laid the foundation of technological civilization: Machines were invented to help men to increase their productivity. It was soon realised that the old system of training of artisans by passing out knowledge and skills from generation to generation of craftsmen and artificers by word of mouth could not keep pace with the technological changes which were constantly influencing the system of production and distribution, and it was necessary to develop a new learning system specially designed to meet the challenges of occupational needs in the industry and maintenance of its products. Thus, a new system of learning process was born by marrying academic education with skill training specially tailor-made for industrial development.

The first technical institution came into existence about eight years after the industrial revolution as a school of general education of craftsmen and artisans, and for teaching apprentices. It was started by John Anderson in Glasgow, Scotland about 1790, soon followed by France (1794) and other countries. The nineteenth century had witnessed the birth of many branches of engineering and technology in addition to classical civil and mechanical engineering, thus introducing new dimensions and challenges to the technical education. Since then, engineering and technological profession is constantly developing and changing at a rapid rate. Its growth is never ending, becoming more and more complex, because gradually the interval between a fundamental scientific discovery and its large-scale use is becoming shorter and shorter.

The incredible advancement of science and the recent sophistication of technology are making technical education more and more complex. There is a need to review the situation continuously and reorient the technical education system according to the changing needs. This will involve not

ment of technical education and its growth, it may be desirable to review briefly the position in historical retrospect prior to 1921.

If one examines the development of technical education in historical perspective, it would be discovered that the foundation of technical education in India was laid almost at the same time as in Europe but its growth had been very restrictive, and slow in the past till India became independent. Soon after the Battle of Plassey in 1754, the status of the presence of Britishers was changed from traders to colonisers. Therefore, to rule the country, it was essential that they should have an intimate knowledge of the country's topography through physical survey of the land. For achieving this object, the English traders established a survey school in Madras in 1794 to train Indian personnel in land survey to assist British surveyors. Since then, so long as the colonial government was here, initiative of starting new centres for technical education came from the British rulers, out of the necessity for training middle level technical personnel for construction and maintenance of public buildings, roads, canals, ports and harbours, and other essential infrastructures, and for training of artisans and craftsmen for use and maintenance of instruments and equipments needed for army, navy and other technical establishments for maintenance of a colony of the British Crown. The need for introduction of occupational education was highlighted in 1854 in a document submitted to the British Government known as "Woods Despatch".

The outcome of this report was the establishment of the three engineering colleges to meet the growing need of locally-trained personnel, at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. These institutions offered only licentiate diploma course in civil engineering to start with. Later on only in 1880, these institutions started offering degree level courses. However, the first engineering college was established in 1847 at Roorkee for training of civil engineering licentiates by making use of the facilities created for development of upper Ganga Canal.

Since Wood's despatch, a number of committees and commissions had been appointed by the colonial government to examine the problems of education in India from time to time. These committees and commissions, while recommending measures to improve the situation, had emphasised the vital role of technical and vocational education in the country in the development of its economy and industry. Of all, the most important (prior to 1921) was perhaps the Hunter's Commission (1880-1882) which made a comprehensive study of the situation prevailing and recommended effective measures to improve the situation.

In the early stages, the superior cadre of technical personnel were mainly recruited from Britain and limited steps were taken only to train middle-level personnel and skilled craftsmen. Apart from the institutions

established for the purpose, training was mainly given at the technical establishments, like gun-carriage factories, railway workshops through provision of apprentice classes, specially in the electrical and mechanical engineering branches. This continued for a long time, till the establishment of the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute at Bombay in 1887, to commemorate the diamond jubilee of Queen Victoria's reign. The main objective of V.J.T.I. was to train licentiates in electrical, mechanical, and textile engineering and technology.

However, realising the importance of technical education for development of the country, some of the leaders of the independence movement started a college of engineering at Jadavpur, in Bengal, under the National Council of Education. This college first started a diploma course in mechanical engineering in 1908 followed by a course in chemical engineering in 1921. In the meantime, in order to meet the national demand, Sir Jamshedji Tata established the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore in 1909. In 1915, the Indian Institute of Science started a Certificate Course and an associateship course (at degree level) in electrical engineering.

Although, civil engineering degree courses were started in the nineteenth century, even in 1917, Calutta University Commission debated the pros and cons for introduction of degree courses in mechanical and electrical engineering. In this context, they took shelter under the recommendation of the Indian Industrial Commission (1915-17), which was not in favour of starting any new courses in these areas as there was no opportunity for employment of electrical engineering in the absence of manufacturing activities in this area. Main activities of electrical engineering was limited only to maintenance. The men required for the work could be provided by training of such people in the respective establishments supplemented by the facilities offered for instruction at the existing engineering colleges and the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

However, considering the potentiality of electrical engineering in the context of economic development of India, Pandit Madan Mohan Malviya, the founder of the Banaras Hindu University, started a comprehensive degree course in mechanical and electrical engineering in 1917.

To sum up the position prior to 1921, it may be stated that due to lack of industrial and economic development activities, employment opportunities for trained technical personnel were limited, therefore, growth of technical education was very slow in the past and limited mainly to the training of civil engineers.

In general there were three categories of technical personnel required:

1. The directing and managing grade.
2. The supervisory grade, i.e. foremen, charge hands, etc. and
3. The operative grade of skilled-workers.

Demand of the first category was met mainly by recruiting technical personnel in U.K. and U.K.-trained persons available in India. To a limited extent the gap in this category was filled up by the products of engineering colleges already established. The other two categories were trained in technical establishments, so practically, no institutional facilities were created for training of these personnel, except a very few institutions established for training of civil overseers.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN 1921 AND AFTER UPTO 1980

The period under review (from 1920 to 1980) can be broadly divided into four sub-periods for study of the development and growth of technical education, first period starting from 1920 to 1939, the second from 1940 to 1946, third from 1947 to 1966 and fourth from 1967 to 1980.

In the nineteen twenties and thirties, organised industrial units were mainly engaged in cotton spinning and weaving, jute spinning and weaving, other textile goods manufacturing, chemical and allied industries and to a limited extent engineering and metal works. The largest employment opportunities were offered by the textiles and allied industries and civil engineering sectors. Hardly did any major reform in technical education system take place during this period. Till the end of thirties there were only ten institutions offering engineering courses, mainly in civil engineering with limited facilities in electrical, mechanical and metallurgy. There were some (very limited) facilities available for chemical technology, applied physics etc. A few institutions were offering monotronics devoted to one subject only like sugar, textiles, leather technology. These were not affiliated to any university but mostly managed by the departments of industry in various provinces.

As a part of the overall reform of the secondary education system to avoid large-scale educated unemployment, on the basis of the recommendations of the committees like the Hartog Committee and Sapru Committee, secondary education was diversified to a limited extent through establishment of some trades, and arts and crafts schools mainly to cater to handicraft and small-scale industries. In a memorandum submitted by Dr. Tarachand, Dr. A. Siddiqui and Dr. Sam Higginbottom to the Sapru Committee (Report of the Unemployment Committee in U.P. 1935), they emphasised that as a part of the formulation of sound economic policy, there was a need for diversification of industry, by starting shipbuilding, aircraft manufacturing, motor car manufacturing, railway wagons and locomotive manufacturing, heavy chemical, military industry etc. and to train suitable manpower to man these industries. No attention was paid to this memo.

In 1936-37, two expert advisers, Messrs Abbot and Wood, were invited to advise the government "On Certain Problems of Educational reorganisation and particularly on problems of vocational and technical education".

One of the basic reasons for instituting the enquiry was because of the fact that a large number of university graduates were unable to secure employment of a kind for which they received education. The report of Messrs Abbot and Wood recommended major reform in the education system by suggesting a complete hierarchy of vocational and technical institutions parallel to that of the institutions imparting general education. On the basis of their recommendations, a new type of technical institutions called "Polytechnics" came into existence for training of middle level technical personnel. The Delhi Polytechnic, which has now been converted into an engineering college, was the first in the chain of such polytechnics.

In 1939, just after World War II started, it was realised by the colonial government that indifferent attitude to training of technical manpower in the country would not serve its best interest in war efforts and that it would be difficult to maintain logistics locally without trained technical personnel in large numbers and of quality. In pursuance of this realisation, the Government of India started a massive training scheme known as "War Technicians Training Schemes" on a nationwide basis for the first time in 1940. It was a crash programme to meet the urgent requirements of defence forces, as well as the industries engaged in defence production. This was a turning point in the history of technical education in India. This also laid the foundation of an organised hierarchical system of technical education which gradually took the shape of a four-tier system.

The major reason for the debacles of the allied army in the first phase of the World War II in the eastern theatre was the failure of the colonial government to build up a technical and industrial infrastructure in India to support the war efforts by maintaining logistics. Soon, it was realised by the Government of India that survival of not only the government but also the United Kingdom would, in future, depend on the industrial development in India and proper development of infrastructure to support such development specially in terms of trained technical manpower. For taking corrective steps to improve the industrial and economic environment in the country, the Government of India created a new portfolio of planning and development under the guidance of Sir Ardeshir Dalal in the Viceroy's Council of Ministers in 1944. In order to reorganise the Indian economy, Sir Ardeshir's approach to the question of planning was simple, direct and pragmatic. He was of the opinion that the rapid strides taken by science and technology had made it possible to cure most of the economic ills of the world, particularly to provide basic necessities of life to all. Ardeshir felt that traditional life in India would need to be changed, and to utilise the great opportunities created by science and technology, the services of highly qualified scientists, technologists and technicians would be urgently required, so a large number of men would have to be given specialised training. He strongly felt that the success of industrial development, large-scale expansion

of technical education was absolutely necessary. The greatest emphasis was therefore placed in Ardeshir's plan on creating training and educational facilities for young men in institutions abroad. Sir Ardeshir Dalal also impressed on industrialists the need for promoting research and science institutions, the relevance of developing contacts with industry. Thus 1944, became the turning point in the history of economic development in the country. It also laid the foundation of the planned development of technical education and scientific research.

Under the Ardeshir plan, a significant change in policy for economic development took place, and the following steps were taken to promote development of scientific research and technical education:

1. Establishment of a Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (now Council of Scientific and Industrial Research).

2. Appointment of a Committee under the chairmanship of Mr. N.R. Sarkar for development of higher technical education with the following terms of reference (1945):

"With a view to ensuring an adequate technical personnel who will be required for post-war industrial development in this country, it is necessary to consider whether it is desirable to have a central institution on the lines of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, U.S.A., with a number of subordinate Institutions affiliated to it or to have higher institutions on a regional basis.

3. Establishment of a fellowship scheme for training of scientists and technologists abroad.

For the coordinated development of technical education on a national basis, two national advisory organizations were established:

- (i) All India Council for Technical Education to advise the Government of India in all aspects of development of technical education at diploma and above levels including post-graduate education and research at the institutional level (1945) and
- (ii) An Advisory Committee on Technical Training constituted in 1944 to review the War Technicians' Training Scheme and recommend measures in order to adapt the above scheme to peace time requirement which ultimately took the shape of the National Council for Training in Vocational Trade (1956).

The Sarkar Committee recommended the establishment of four regional higher technical institutes. The All India Council for Technical Education at its first meeting endorsed this recommendation that to meet India's requirement of technical manpower there should be established four Regional Technical Institutions on the pattern of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology which was accepted by the government.

For the purpose of development of technical education, 1944-47 should be considered as the transitional period in changing the policy from the policy of stagnation to the policy of dynamism. A number of new institutions came up during this period.

To appreciate the position better, it may be necessary to give a brief survey of the position of Technical Education in 1947, when India became independent.

In 1947, there were hardly about 38 institutions offering first degree courses in engineering and technology and 53 institutions offering education at technicians' level. Total yearly fresh admission in these institutions used to be of the order of about 3000 at the degree level, and 3700 at the diploma level. At the craftsmen's level, the position was slightly better. Apart from the facilities available for training in industry, there were about 300 institutions at training centres in the country with a total capacity of about 60000 trainees. At the post-graduate level, prior to 1947, there was hardly any facility for advanced studies or research in the field of engineering and technology.

In 1947, when India gained her independence, she became the largest democracy in the world, thus holding an important position among the nations of the world with all its obligations and responsibility. If she has to play her part effectively, she should have a sound economic base, which can only be achieved through hard work, devoted motivation and effective planning.

The mere availability of science and technology does not guarantee economic development. Only judicious use of science and technology, to increase productivity through better management can create conditions for such development. To promote and develop the essential requirements for economic development, the country needs a well-developed technical manpower. Technical education is responsible for developing such manpower which covers a wide spectrum for skilled workers to sophisticated research engineers and scientists.

Realising the importance of technical education in developing key human resources for economic growth, and to meet the great challenge of developing the country's natural resources in transforming a purely agricultural economy into a major industrial one within a short span, effective steps were taken to build up a sound infrastructure for developing a technical education system to meet the growing needs of the country.

Since technical education is directly related to industrial development and an infrastructure to sustain such development and considering the heavy investment required for technical education, there is a need for proper balancing of the supply and demand of technical manpower. Therefore, for scientific planning of development of technical education, there is need

for continuing assessment of trained manpower required and evaluation of the prevailing system of technical education both in terms of qualitative and quantitative aspects. For this purpose, before launching any scheme of expansion of technical education in India, a Scientific Manpower Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. Shanti Swarup Bhatnagar was appointed in 1947 to study the problem in depth and to recommend suitable measures to meet the future challenges. The Scientific Manpower Committee for the first time in India, made a comprehensive survey of the prevailing position. It assessed the requirements for scientific and technical personnel for the period of ten years from 1947 to 1957 to meet the growing demand of the various government departments for scheme of expansion of industrial and agricultural production, transport etc. in accordance with the declared policy of the government. According to their estimate, the demand for technical manpower would far exceed the supply from the then existing technical institutions. The ratio between demand and supply was as high as 4:1 exclusive of the demand for the small-scale sectors. If their requirement were to be taken into consideration, the ratio would have been much greater. Almost simultaneously, Sir Radhakrishnan Commission (The University Education Commission 1948-49), while considering the problems of higher education made a critical study of the engineering and technological education in the country vis-a-vis the global situation and made many valuable recommendations for improvement and reform of the technical education system in the country. The report of these two Commissions/Committees served the basis of planning of development of technical education in the country.

Keeping in view the constraints of finance and trained manpower and considering the quantitative demand of technical manpower for economic growth, in the first phase of development, simultaneous action was taken in upgrading the existing technical institutions to a minimum standard by providing suitable facilities and expanding them for larger intake, and also establishing new institutions for meeting the quantitative demands to the extent possible. Financial incentives were also given to private sector to start technical institutions.

Since 1947, there had been a steady growth of technical education upto 1967-68. Gradually over the years, over 135 institutions offering degree courses in about 35 branches of engineering and technology with an annual admission capacity of the order of about 25000 were established. During the same period over 280 institutions, popularly known as polytechnics, for training technicians with an annual admission capacity of the order of about 49000 covering 55 subject areas were established. At the craftsmen's level over 550 industrial training institutions offering training in 32 engineering and 21 non-engineering trades with a total capacity of about 1,55,000 trainees came into existence. At this stage, supply of technical personnel was marginally lower than the demand.

During this period, India faced two major wars—one in 1962 and other in 1965 — which changed the complexion of the economic development, and in fact there was an economic recession in 1967-68. This phenomenon brought about large-scale unemployment among the technical personnel. In view of the drop in employment opportunities, admissions in technical institutions started declining, mainly as a deliberate policy to balance the demand and supply of technical manpower. Due to restriction of admission and other constraining factors, the level of annual admission was reduced to the order of about 18,000 for degree courses and 30,000 for technician courses. At the craftsmen's level the position more or less remained the same.

Although girls are free to take admission in any technical institution, taking into consideration the socio-economic factors, to promote technician's education for girls, a special type of institution exclusively for girls known as Women's Polytechnics has been set up in various parts of the country. However, their number is very small, about a couple of dozen only offering courses in about 18 subjects.

Since 1967-68, there has been only a marginal increase of technical institutions: about 15 new institutions have been added to the number at degree level and about the same number at diploma level. However, the total new admission ceiling remains constant.

At the post-graduate level, prior to 1947, there was hardly any facility for advanced studies or research in the field of engineering and technology. It is well recognised that science and technology are the catalysts of economic growth and propellents of progress and development. Realising the importance of scientific and technological research and for rapid economic development of the country, the Government of India has set up a chain of five higher technical institutions at Nagpur, Madras and in the light of the recommendation of the Sarkar Committee with international cooperation. In addition, steps were taken to expand the facilities for post-graduate studies and research at the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. However, the tempo of development of post-graduate studies and research really gained momentum only in 1953, during the first plan and within a period of ten years 39 institutions grew into post-graduate centres with an enrolment of about 1,100 students in Master's degree courses. Today the country has been able to establish a sound infrastructure which may lead to almost self-sufficiency at this level of education in engineering and technology. Now there are about 75 centres offering as many as 346 courses with an intake capacity of about 6000 of which about 2000, i.e. 32.70 per cent of the total facilities are available in five Indian Institutes of Technology and their sister organization, The Indian Institute of Science.

As regards research (at Doctoral level) on an average about 500 candidates register for doctorate degree and about 350 candidates qualify

for doctorate degree every year. The facilities for post-graduate studies and research offered by these institutions cover a wide range of fields from classical civil, mechanical engineering to more sophisticated field like aeronautical engineering, computer technology etc. However, the facilities created fall short of actual need of India both in quality and quantity, if the country has to develop its research and development capability to meet the challenges of future.

STRUCTURE AND PATTERN OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND ITS CHANGING TRENDS

Technical education is a sub-system of national education system, which in turn, is an integral part of the total development process. Moreover, technical education exists for industry and economic development. Therefore, it has to be dynamic and flexible, keeping pace on the one side with the reform in educational system and on the other technological changes and economy. In view of this, technical education in India has travelled a long way. It started as a one-tier system, now it has developed into a four-tier structure with a superstructure of research and development keeping close relation with the changing trend in the employment structure.

The four tiers of technical education in relation to the present employment structure is represented by two pyramidic structures given below in Figs. 2: A and B.

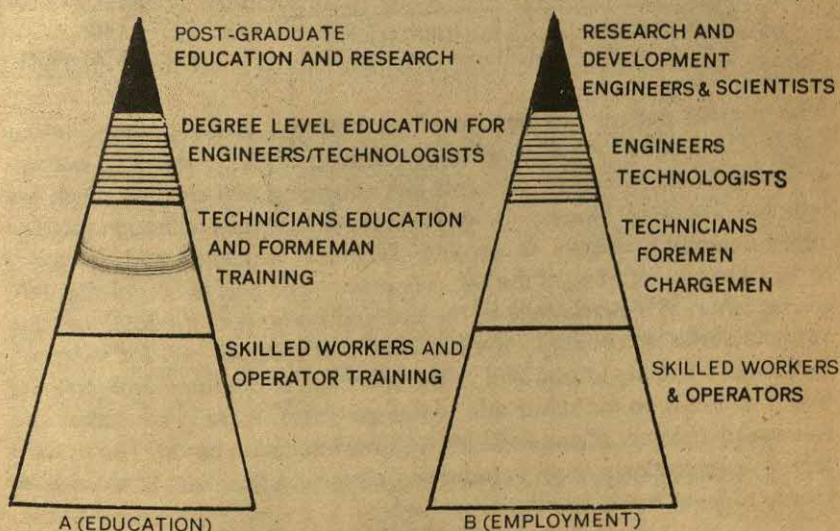


Fig. 2

It may be observed that each tier is self-contained and serves a specific purpose. However, education and training for research and development are closely related to education and training at degree level. There are provisions for vertical mobility both for employment and education through continuing education and training.

If the structure is transformed in academic terms, the present pattern could be represented as given in Fig. 3 below.

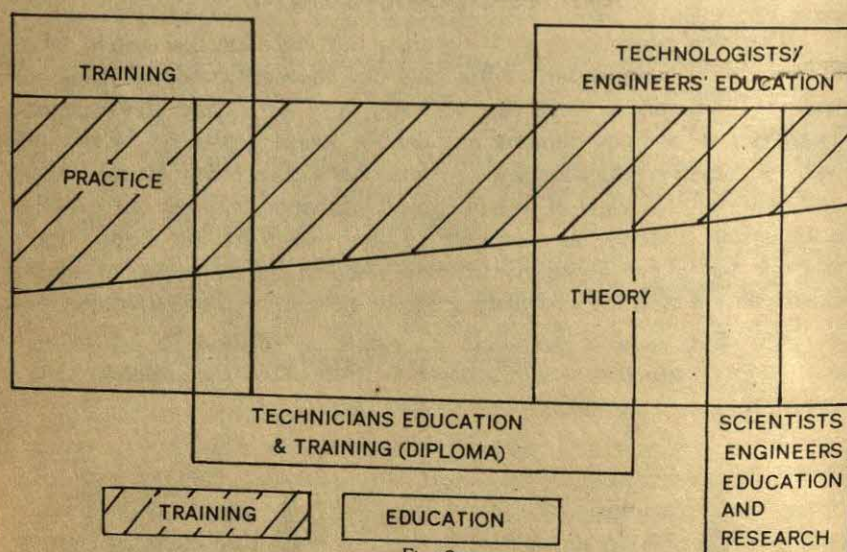


Fig. 3.

The present pattern has been evolved over the years through various reforms. However, for a better understanding of the problem, it may be desirable to clarify certain concepts like education and training. Both are learning processes. Many consider them as synonymous, although they are really different processes of learning. Technical education and training is in fact a happy blending of the two processes—one acts as complementary to the other. The percentage of the two components of the total learning process varies according to the objective and purpose, as, for example, craftsmen's training at one end of the spectrum is predominantly training based whereas on the other side of the spectrum, there is education and training of engineer-scientists, which is highly education based. The present technical education system in India and elsewhere has been evolved from highly training based to education based.

CRAFTSMEN - 111

The present craftsmen's training programmes have been evolved from the training on job in a few classical trades to organised institutional training.

At present, craftsmen are trained either through apprenticeship in industry supported by appropriate education in selected centres or in well-organised industrial training institutions as mentioned earlier. The institutional training programmes are reoriented from time to time according to the needs of the industry. The duration of training used to be from one year to two years with admission qualification from 8th class passed to 10 years of school education according to the nature of the trade. The institutional training is followed up by on-the-job training. However, with the changing technology in industry, the training programmes in I.T.I's are being reoriented to two years with higher contents of educational component and broad-based training with modular system. Admission qualifications to these courses are also being standardised to ten years of schooling in the light of the recent reform of educational system in the country on the basis of the recommendation of the Education Commission (Kothari Commission), i.e. $10 + 2 + 3$ years having 12 years of schooling ($10 + 2$). Training given at the I.T.I. (Industrial Training Institutions) has thus become a part of the higher secondary school system.

Under the Apprenticeship Act 1961, it is obligatory on all employers in specified industries to make provisions for training of apprentices as per the prescribed ratio in the designated trade between apprentices and workers. The apprenticeable trades are being notified from time to time. The period of apprenticeship varies between 6 months and 3 to 4 years. The entry qualifications range between 5 and 11 years of prior schooling. However, this is also being standardised to ten years of schooling according to the new pattern of education. In 1973, the Apprentices Act was amended to cover also graduate engineer and technicians diploma-holders for conditioning them on job.

Training of highly skilled workers in a variety of advanced and sophisticated skills such as process control, instrumentation, meteorology, tool-making, heat treatment etc. which are not available under the normal craftsmen's and apprenticeship programmes, is given in selected I.T.I's and Central Training Institutes.

Although the training given in I.T.I's and industrial establishments are open to both men and women, taking into consideration the existing socio-economic situation, special facilities have also been created for girls exclusively, in selected trades.

TECHNICIANS - Polytechnics

For industrial development, technicians are the most vital manpower; in fact, they are the kingpins of modern industry. However, in the trained technical manpower spectrum, while professional engineers and craftsmen are easily identifiable, it is difficult to recognise technicians as a class. The main reason is that it is difficult to draw a clear line separating highly skilled

craftsmen and process workers from technicians, and it is equally difficult also to distinguish well-qualified technicians from engineers and technologists given similar level of opportunity. Even their education and training processes sometimes overlapped as shown in Fig. 3.

In view of this, technicians as a class are generally identified by subtracting professional engineers and skilled workers from the technical manpower spectrum. However, there is no doubt that duties, responsibilities and functions are recognizable. In spite of the fact that international organizations like UNESCO, ILO etc. have clearly defined each category of technical manpower in relation to their duties, functions and responsibility and educational and training preparation, still there is confusion in the minds of many in distinguishing technicians as a group by themselves. Therefore, other middle level technical personnel like foremen chargemen etc. and even some craftsmen are classified under technicians.

For a better understanding of the problem, it may be desirable to reiterate the concept of technicians in terms of their job and training. A technician's jobs involve a level of scientific and technical knowledge higher than that needed by an operator or a craftsman but lower than that of an engineer or technologist. A technician's education and training should enable him to exercise technical judgement based on an intelligent application of the general principle underlying the technician's work as compared with the reliance from accumulated skills and experience which is the characteristic of craftsmen, or even foremen or chargemen. In fact, with the upgrading of technology in industry, the need for foreman type of people is vanishing and gradually they are being replaced by technicians.

Development of technicians education is to be viewed in this context in the pre-independence era. There was hardly any opportunity for technicians to find any employment in industry. The employment structure had no provision for absorbing such people. The middle level technical personnel needed were of the type of people such as foremen. Asstt. Foremen and other Chargehands etc., who rose from the ranks of craftsman after acquiring adequate skills and experience. Therefore, there was hardly any institution for training of technicians except at a late stage. Just before independence, polytechnics came into existence. However, in the field of civil engineering, there were limited facilities for training of overseers or sub-overseers who were given only basic scientific and technical knowledge just sufficient to translate the instructions of the qualified engineers to the semi-skilled or skilled workers for accomplishing a task.

After the World War II, more so, after independence, the policy for economic development took a sharp turn for rapid industrial development and improvement of infrastructure to support agricultural development. This created a new situation in the employment market and stimulated a rapid

change in the employment pattern of technical personnel. Because of the industrial developmental programmes, there was a large demand for technicians. With the increase in demand for technicians, naturally facilities for technicians education had to be expanded at an accelerated pace to match the demand. This rapid expansion of facilities without proper preparation, induced certain distortions in the system. Moreover the technicians education has been highly influenced by degree level and old overseer education. Upto 1966, because of shortage of technical personnel, no problem was faced on the employment front by the technicians. After 1966, due to slowing down of industrial and other economic activities, the rate of growth of economy came down rapidly, consequently, a large number of technical personnel faced difficulty in getting employment. The employers naturally become more choosy. Since there was surplus production of engineering graduates, some of the engineers accepted lower categories of employment normally meant for technicians. In addition, because of the pressure of Trade Unions, certain technicians' posts were earmarked for craftsmen having long service in the industry. These two factors reduced the employment opportunities of technicians, more than the share due to industrial recession.

In view of the above abnormal position, there had been serious criticisms of the technicians education system by various sections of people. Their anxieties were ventilated in many forums. To examine the matter in detail, the Government of India appointed a high power Committee under the chairmanship of Prof. G. R. Damodaran in early 1970. The Committee composed not only of Indian experts, but also experts from U.S.A., U.K., West Germany and Japan. The terms of reference of the Committee was comprehensive and wide to examine the whole system of polytechnic education vis-a-vis the needs of industry for middle level technical personnel, and to prepare a blueprint for its reorganisation and development in all their aspects.

The Committee's review showed clearly that a large number of technicians positions were occupied by engineering graduates and engineering practicals, i.e. those who did not have formal technical education. Only 36% of the positions were actually held by technicians. There were wide variations in the pattern of utilization of diploma holders as technicians with various industry groups, the proportion ranging from about 24 per cent in the processing industry to about 60 per cent in the automobile, shipbuilding, machine tools and paper industry. It was also observed that from the functional distribution of technicians, the main concentration of them, nearly 69 per cent, were engaged in design and production, about 20 per cent in laboratory testing and analysis and almost 11 per cent in sales, stores keeping etc. It was also observed that there was a growing demand for technicians for sales and services.

Considering the various aspects of training and education of technicians and the observations of various groups of users of technicians, the Committee felt that in a developing country like India, narrow specialisation was undesirable at the first diploma level. Diploma courses should be diversified to provide for a range of broad specialisation within the major branches of study. The education and training of technicians being a continuous process does not cease with the first employment. There is, therefore, need for provision of refresher and retraining courses keeping in view the changing requirement of jobs.

The Committee considered various suggestions and actual situation in the industry and other employing sectors and the trend in the change of job pattern and recommended a pragmatic reform. The general period of duration should be three years, with provision of part time courses and for narrow specialisation's there is a need for one year advanced diploma courses. The curricula should be well balanced between the studies of humanities, basic sciences, technical studies and practices in proper sequences. The education should culminate with a project work based on real problem involving industrial/commercial practices and processes.

The Damodaran Committee based on their studies and review of the actual situation and needs to put the education and training of technicians in proper perspective made many valuable recommendations for reorganisation of the polytechnic education. Hardly any worthwhile action on the report has so far been taken, except when a few years back an implementation committee was provided to effect the reform on the lines suggested by the Committee.

For training of other middle level technical personnel, an institute for training of foreman and supervisors was established at Bangalore in 1971, with the assistance of the Federal Republic of Germany. Tailore-made programmes are prepared at this institute to suit specific requirements of particular industrial establishments after assessing their training needs. The institute also provided short-term courses for supervisory development. The institute has trained over 2500 foremen/supervisors through its training programmes. The training programmes organised by this institute is meant for existing/potential shop foreman with adequate industrial experience and sponsored by the industry.

EDUCATION AT THE FIRST DEGREE LEVEL

Before independence, the first degree level education in engineering and technology was offered in a limited number of professional institutions mainly affiliated to the universities. The duration of the courses used to vary between 3 and 4 years because of the prevailing educational structure which was ten years of school education followed by two years of junior

college education (intermediate) before a candidate could get admission to a university course. The courses offered at the first degree level were more or less of the standard of advanced technicians course. This situation continued even after independence although number of institutions multiplied. However, after acceptance of the Secondary Education Commission's (1953) recommendations by the Government, most of the states introduced eleven years of schooling, consequently the duration of engineering and technological education was extended to 5 years (integrated course) at the first degree level. This created an anomalous situation. With the variation in the duration of school education and their pattern there had been considerable variations in the duration of courses and admission requirements. The majority of the institutions opted for 5 years, integrated course after eleven years of schooling. However, some maintained four years, duration after I.Sc. (Intermediate sciences), some (a very small in number) provided 3 year-courses with B.Sc. as admission qualification. A few even maintained 3 year-courses after I.Sc.

After the Government of India accepted the pattern of education as 10 + 2 + 3 years (general degree) on the recommendation of the Education Committee (1964-66), the States, which have accepted the new pattern of education, have started changing over to the new pattern. Consequently, the duration of the engineering and technological degree courses has been changed to 4 years. Wisdom for such a change needs to be questioned as educational process is not a mere arithmetical calculation.

As already stated, facilities for education at first degree level are available in all Indian institutions like Indian Institutes of Technology, Regional Engineering Colleges, and other engineering and technological colleges financed by private agencies or by the state governments, etc.

POST GRADUATE AND RESEARCH

The facilities at the post-graduate and research level are offered in all Indian institutions and selected engineering colleges having adequate facilities for conducting post-graduates studies. The normal duration of the Master's degree (M.Tech) is two years, after a person has taken his first degree in engineering and technology. However, in some of the institutions, there are facilities for admitting persons with post-graduate degree in sciences in the M. Tech. courses. Some of the institutions also offer special industry-oriented diploma courses of shorter duration. As regards research degree, a selected number of the institutions offer such facilities. The duration of such degree courses is generally three years after one completes his Master's degree in technology or engineering.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Since teachers are the soul of any educational system, if the standard and quality of technical education have to improve, it is essential that the quality of technical teachers should be improved through organised programmes. Realising the importance of training of teachers to improve the quality of technical education, in 1959, the Government of India launched an organised teachers' training programme for degree institutions. Under this scheme, fresh graduates with a good academic career were recruited and trained in selected centres for a period of about three years. During the fourth plan (late 1960s), a more comprehensive quality improvement programme, including faculty development was incorporated. Under this scheme, provision has been made for award of fellowships to serving teachers from engineering colleges for long-term studies leading to a doctorate or master's degree, and provisions have also been made for short-term courses, refresher courses and other programmes for upgrading the teachers.

For polytechnic, four Technical Teachers Training Institutes have been specially set up in the country. These institutions are located in the four regions of the country. These institutions offer full time as well as short term training programmes for both engineering graduates and diploma holders working as teachers in polytechnics. A common feature of the long-term courses is the interweaving of subject matter with pedagogy and industrial organisation. Teachers Trainees practise these aspects in real live teaching situation. Short-term courses are mainly for updating and refreshing the knowledge in various disciplines and methodology of teaching. These institutions, in addition to training of teachers, are also responsible for operational research and curriculum development etc. in the area of polytechnic education.

At the craftsmen level, steps have been taken from the very beginning to organise programmes for training of instructors required for Industrial Training Institutes as well as apprentice training establishments. For this purpose six Central Training institutes (C.T.I.) have been established. First in the chain was established in 1948. Duration of such training is one year. Training is imparted in pedagogy and upgrading of skills. These institutes also offer a large number of refresher and retraining programmes. At each training centre, there is a model training institute, as training laboratory, where instructor trainees practise teaching craft students in a live situation.

In 1977, the Central Training Institute for Women Instructors, in New Delhi was upgraded into a National Vocational Institutes for Women with a view to increasing facilities for training of women.

Four special Central Institutes/Units have been set up to provide sup-

plementary training to the faculty and officers from industry, I.T.I's C.T.I's and Government departments.

Apart from providing training, these institutes/units are also engaged in operational research in areas of industrial training in all its aspects.

Planning and Development of Technical Education

Two national organisations have been set up by the Government of India, which are mainly responsible for development of technical education according to the changing circumstances and needs of economic and industrial development. One is the All India Council for Technical Education which was established in late 1945 (first meeting was held in April/May 1946) for advising the government on all matters related to planning and development of technical education except the development of craftsmen's training and allied areas. For planning and development of craftsmen's training, the Government of India set up a National Council for Training in Vocational Trade in 1956, which in fact, is the successor of the Advisory Committee on Technical Training established in 1944 to review the war-time Technicians Training Schemes and recommend measures to adapt the scheme to peace-time requirement.

The All India Council for Technical Education which is mainly responsible for all aspects of development of technical education is a representative body on which all interests including State Governments, Universities, industry, professional bodies and some others are well represented. This body is responsible for advising the Government of India on the coordinated development of Technical Education in India and laying down the policies and standard of technical education. This is an apex body assisted by its Regional Committees located in the four corners of the country. At the State level, like the All India Council for Technical Education, each major State has a State-board of Technical Education which coordinates the development of Technical Education at the state level and also advises the state government on various aspects of technical education within the broad policy derived by the All India Council for Technical Education. Technical power is vital to the success of developmental activities. The All India Council for Technical Education and the National Council for Training in Vocational Trade have a vital role to play in the economic development of the country.

As regards training of craftsmen, to make the training purposeful and meaningful towards the present requirements as well as future trends, the main advisory body is the National Council for Training in Vocational Trades. This Council along with the Central Apprenticeship Council advise the Central Government on training policies, standard and other relevant subjects. These Councils also function more or less on the same pattern as that of the All India Council for Technical Education.

The above National Councils, from time to time, appoint different Committees to review the prevailing situations in the field of development of technical education in relation to the national needs and requirements, and to suggest reforms to satisfy the requirements.

In the field of vocational training, in 1977, the Government of India, Ministry of Labour appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. S. Abdul Qadir, to examine in depth the quality of training imparted to apprentices in various establishments, and also to trainees in Industrial Training Institutes (I.T.Is) and to suggest suitable remedial measures for improving the quality of training. The Committee has made a comprehensive review of the whole situation and valuable recommendations keeping in view, the changing trends in occupational patterns, due to technological changes taking place in the industry and other fields of economic activities. One of the major and important recommendations is that the present structure of training programme in the Industrial Training Institute must be reorganised on the modular system. There should be broad-based basic training of about one year, common for a group of trades e.g. metal trades, electrical trades, heat engineers etc. The objective of this basic training of about one year, common for a group of trades, e.g. metal specialisation would be built. Those who complete the basic training successfully could opt for any one of the following:

- (a) work as an operator in a processing industry or automatic plant.
- (b) undergo further training in one or two modules of employable skills in training institutes.
- (c) join the industry as an indentured apprentice under modular concept of training.
- (d) take to entrepreneurship or self-employment.

The reform suggested above has two benefits: (1) the training given at the Industrial Training Institute become a part of the plus two stages of the new education structure, i.e. 10 + 2 + 3 years and (2) it has a built in provision for growth of the individual and also motivation to entrepreneurship.

These recommendations are already being implemented.

Similarly the All India Council for Technical Education has from time to time appointed Committees to review the technical education system at diploma and above level and to recommend remedial measures to bring about effective reforms so that technical education system can play the most vital and key role in the economic and industrial development of the country and to keep pace with the fast changing global scientific and technological environment. In 1977, a working group under the Chairmanship of the Secretary, Ministry of Education was constituted to review

the entire status of technical education vis-a-vis the country's present and future requirements and to recommend remedial measures for improvement. The Committee made a comprehensive survey of the existing situation and made some valuable recommendations for reform and further development of technical education. About 43 items of the recommendations of the group were endorsed by the All India Council for Technical Education which would be the basis of future reforms.

ARTICULATION OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION WITH MANPOWER

There has been a considerable expansion in technical education since independence. While, on the one hand, skilled workers are needed for manning development schemes, a large number of skilled craftsmen, technicians and engineers are facing unemployment. Lack of a national manpower information system, imbalances in the estimated demand and supply of technical manpower, poor quality of craftsmen, technicians and engineers, fluctuations in growth rates in industries and investment are some of the major reasons for this situation. Efforts are now being made to study these problems seriously.

The Government of India has recently decided on the basis of the recommendations of the AICTE to diversify and consolidate the existing courses and to introduce new courses based on well-established and well-defined manpower needs. A reliable national manpower information system for storage, updating, retrieval and analysis of manpower information to assist technical education planning is proposed to be set up.

Lessons from Indian Experience

India, after independence, was faced with the problem of choice between quality and quantity. However, taking into consideration the probable consequences of shortage of trained manpower, it had to give quantitative expansion higher priority. Such quantitative expansion was, however, related to the manpower needs as projected for probable economic growth in the national plans. At the initial stage of development, because of limitation of funds, it was not possible to divert equal attention to both quantitative and qualitative development, although every effort was made to do so.

Consequently, the technical education system, which has been developed in India since independence, is essentially based on the then prevailing needs and requirements of the industry and other economic sectors, basically dependent on foreign know-how under licence manufacturing of machines, fabrication and maintenance. These activities were of a routine nature. There was hardly any R & D activity in the industry.

Therefore, no serious trouble was faced by the technical education system in the country. However, whenever any new situation arose, special training programmes had to be arranged for training of technical personnel either abroad or in India. Such arrangements are not only time consuming and delay development, but they cost additional capital and energy. This is one of the many reasons why after 30 years' planning, the country still has to depend on foreign collaboration for manufacturing sophisticated equipment or material. In some cases, the country has to depend on collaborative arrangements even for maintenance or servicing, although India has a fine and well-organised infrastructure for promotion of scientific and technical education and occupies the third position in the world in the matter of production-trained scientific and technical manpower.

The lesson one can learn from Indian experience is that a developing country, at its initial stage of development, is confronted with the problem of quality vs. quantity. Since development of manpower resources needs a long lead-time, unless proper planning is done well in advance for supply of adequate well-trained manpower, it becomes extremely difficult for a country to develop its resources for rapid economic growth. In view of this, although it is desirable to balance demand and supply of trained manpower, it may be difficult to do so. In practice, one has to choose between the two, marginal surplus or shortage. For a developing country, it is much better to choose the path of creating a marginal surplus of trained manpower than to create a shortage, which may ultimately affect economic development very badly.

A critical appreciation of the Indian experience in the field of technical education may be a useful guide to many developing countries. It may be worthwhile for them to study the Indian experiment in the field of technical education to derive proper guidelines for planning and development of technical education in their own country.

The Indian experience also shows that with the expansion of the facilities for technical education, simultaneous action is required to provide facilities for training of adequate number of teachers to ensure maintenance of proper standard.

Conclusion

Technical education is a product of the Industrial Revolution. Its main objective is to supply trained manpower required for industrial development, which in turn depends on technological changes introduced from time to time, due to scientific discoveries. Technical education is highly job-oriented. Job-requirements do change with the change in technology. If technical education has to serve its purpose, it has to be flexible and dynamic. It should be susceptible to change with the changing trends of

technology. Therefore, technical education system in a country needs to be reviewed as often as possible, in relation to industrial and technological needs, otherwise technology may stagnate and industrial development may slow down.

From the present case study, it may be observed that a number of reforms have been introduced for updating technical education system in India from time to time. In the early stage of development of technical education, the reforms undertaken had been marginal and slow due to the deliberate policy to slow down the pace of economic and industrial development in the country. Even so, inspite of several constraints, due to compulsion, the government had to undertake some reforms to satisfy the changing need.

After independence, the picture changed sharply. In order to make the country self-reliant and to modernise its agriculture, the Government of India has undertaken a massive economic and industrial development through a series of five-year plans. To meet the challenges, the government has to undertake massive development of technical education and number of reforms to update it, which has been stated in the course of the case study. The reforms, undertaken in the field of technical education, cover a wide area both in terms of quantity as well as quality. Many changes have been introduced in structure, pattern and contents of technical education. One should be proud of the achievement in technical education. Today India is third in the world in the production of technical and scientific manpower. It has been possible for the technical education system in India to supply sophisticated manpower for development of high technology-oriented projects like nuclear science, space technology, etc.

Inspite of all the development in the field of technical education, the country is still dependent on outside technical know-how and collaboration (1) in high technology-based industry. One of the major failures of the system is the present weakness in research and development which has failed (2) to develop indigenous technology. Several factors are responsible for such a situation. The major factors are (1) lack of proper direction of industrial development; (2) too much emphasis on the labour-intensive technology (3) lack of provision of adequate funds for development of technical education, particularly at the level of higher education and research; (4) last but not the least, the inertia of legacy left behind by a system of technical education in the pre-independence period which was highly oriented towards minor fabrication and maintenance without any R & D component. Consequently, the post-graduate programmes have failed to attract the best quality students to post-graduate courses. This is a serious matter, which will have far-reaching consequences on the future technological

competence of this country. For a variety of reasons which include redundant and outdated courses, inadequate facilities, lack of motivation, long duration of courses, lack of incentive, lack of proper employment opportunities, etc., it has not been possible to attract many bright people for post-graduate education.

3) According to certain studies, about 25% of the top engineering graduates produced by some of the best institutions leave the country every year. An important dimension of the loss through brain-drain is the reverse transfer of technology through migration of such highly qualified manpower to developed countries. The loss of the potential for innovative technology embodied in this sort of brain drain is to be taken as a defeat of the very purpose of the high quality technological education.

4) It is well known that many of the existing post-graduate degree programmes are outdated and stereotyped. They have also proliferated out of all proportion according to the finding of the Nayudamma Committee.

5) Many morals can be drawn from the Indian experience in the field of development of technical education. However, the most important moral, one may draw, is that no worthwhile reform is possible for development of technical education without a clear definition of national policy on industrial development, policy on technology adoption and policy on R & D. These policy-declarations in clear and futurist term with well-defined objectives in time can only ensure a healthy development of technical education, which also needs study of global technological environment and its changing trends.

To enable the professional engineers to achieve the objective and play a useful role, the present stereotyped system of technical education need drastic changes both in concept and in contents. International conferences like UNESCO, General Conferences in 1962 and 1976 has laid down the guidelines for development of technical education programmes to serve the changing needs of the modern society and the requirement of the highly sophisticated technological society of the 21st century, when a professional technical man has to assume social and moral leadership of the society. Gone are the days when it was possible to be simply a civil engineer or a mechanical engineer. To serve the purpose, the curriculum of professional education should be broad-based and flexible, and susceptible to continuous change with the changing needs of the time. It should not only contain substantial studies of social science, basic sciences and the humanities but also, there should be greater interaction between various branches of education to humanise the professionals on the one hand and the other hand, make others aware of the environment in which they will live in future.

One of the institutions, Birla Institute of Technology and Science, Pilani, which is pioneer in innovation has already set the pace for a workable reform in higher technical education, relevant to the changing needs of the country, which is at the threshold of a highly sophisticated techno-economic revolution, keeping in view the changing socio-cultural milieu in the country.

The Nayudamma Committee, while suggesting new courses in the emerging areas, has recommended that at the post-graduate level, wherever possible, attempts should be made to redesign the existing courses to include relevant and emerging areas. Narrow and futile definitions of disciplines are dangerous. Care should be taken to see that inter-disciplinary areas do not become independent areas. Inter-disciplinarity has become a highly complex process involving a large number of specialists from essentially different disciplines. This is going to be the order of the future higher education in all professional fields.

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Physical Education in India

V. D. Bapat

INTRODUCTION

Worldwide Changing Concept of Physical Education

Physical education which has a practical bearing on the needs of the individual and the requirements of the society for efficient living has always rendered service to each in the country. The mental and moral nature of man is interlocked with his physical well-being. But history mirrors that the emphasis, in the past, had been more on the academic type of education without proper consideration of the physical welfare of the student youth. (India was no exception to it.) History reveals that the progress of physical education in every country has mainly depended on its political, educational, economic and social developments. History further reveals that the physical education has always been used by different countries for building the youths for the defence of their country. (Similar need was felt more urgently by India during emergencies under foreign aggression on India). In the course of time physical education received attention as a measure against the problem of students' indiscipline. (Similar problem confronted the British Government in the Akhada Movement in India.) Later it received an educational approach and was considered necessary as a part and parcel of the educational system to achieve the goal of education. (This is being experienced at present in India.) The scientific aspect of physical education was then studied by the experts of physical education and medicine as a result of which the science of physical education was developed and utilized in formulating various programmes and schemes for youth development through physical education and sports. (India has still to experience this scientific aspect in its true sense.)

General Nature of Physical Education in the Early British Period

In India, physical education emphasized physical development, good health and character for development of the individual as well as for

the defence of the country. The Indian National Congress, founded in 1885, gave the Indian people definite ideal to work upon. There was a general political awakening and the ultimate result was a movement for a free, independent India. This political consciousness led to the popularity of Vyayamshalas, Akhadas and Talimkhanas. Some were already in existence but many more were founded by political people who aimed at national regeneration through physical education. These centres of physical training provided opportunities to the young and the old to take part in indigenous physical exercises. This revival of traditional Indian forms of physical training encouraged a sense of national unity and a desire for political freedom. People engaged in exercises for self-defence. This resulted in the Akhada Movement in India. During this Akhada Movement in the early part of the century, the practice of physical exercise was carried out in Vyayamshalas, Talimkhanas and Akhadas with a firm patriotic commitment to liberate the country from foreign yoke. Vyayamshalas, Talimkhanas, Gymnasias, Akhadas and other institutions tried their best to maintain and promote the traditional activities amongst the youth of the country, and inculcate amongst them love for physical fitness, nationalism and patriotism. However, under the British Rule, no systematic efforts could be made in our country to promote physical education for the student youth in harmony with the ideal of the country and consistent with our tradition and character. The first chance that India snatched to put its own ideas about physical education in execution was when the Congress Ministry came to office in 1937 in the then Bombay State.

Period in Which British Government Took Lead in Developing Physical Education but Popular Enthusiasm Fell Short of Expectations

(a) Physical Education prior to 1882

The primary object of the schools that were developed before the creation of the Department of Public Instruction, Bombay, was the development of mind by cramming facts without least attention to the development of body. During this period physical education of the students was totally neglected.

Things began to change a little after the creation of the aforesaid Department. The principals of the colleges and the headmasters of the schools who happened to be interested in physical education began to take some steps for providing facilities for physical education in their institutions. For example, the Elphinstone College, Bombay, established a Cricket Club in 1862-63; The Poona College had a Mullkhamb and a

Gymnastic Trainer on its staff in 1867; by 1881, this Poona College had clubs for boating, cricket, and tennis; and in the Government schools gymnasia were provided and Indian games were introduced, partly because they cost little and partly because their introduction was facilitated by the traditions of the people. However, it may be said that physical education was comparatively neglected in the private colleges and high schools of this period.

Miss Carpenter, the well-known social worker of England, who paid a visit to Bombay, in the sixties of the last century, pressed upon the Government of Bombay the urgent need of providing for the physical development of pupils in Government schools. The subject thus received its first consideration as a matter of policy after 1866. One of the results of Miss Carpenter's suggestion was the introduction of physical education in the training colleges for men. In all these institutions, gymnastics and drill were introduced as part of the school routine, and primary teachers were taught gymnastic exercises as part of their training. It is not possible, however, to know the extent and the manner in which physical education was introduced in the primary schools of this period as a result of this training. But here also, as in the secondary schools, the results must have depended almost entirely, on the personal interest of the teacher concerned.

The second result of her suggestion was the insertion, in the revised Grant-in-aid-Code of 1877, of a clause which said that building grants for gymnasia may be considered on merits. The third general result of her suggestion was to draw the attention of Departmental Officers more specifically to the problem of physical education. The Educational Inspectors were now required to submit a special report on Physical Education and these were annually published as an appendix to the Director's Report with effect from 1879-80.

(b) Physical Education Between 1882 and 1912

The Indian Education Commission recommended that physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school drill, and other exercises, suited to the circumstances of each class of school. This recommendation was accepted by Government with the result that physical education began to receive much greater attention than in the past.

This trend was further strengthened by the agitation that was started by University authorities and leaders of Indian Public Opinion urging that more attention should be paid to physical education. For

example, Justice Gibbs in his convocation address (1875) said, "In this generation you are destroying the bodies to strengthen the minds; in the next generation both mind and body will fail if you press them hard"; Dr. R.G. Bhandarkar in his convocation address (1893) suggested, "Physical exercise must regularly be resorted to by the young as well as old, if we are not to die off under the tension"; and Justice Ranade urged, "Physical exercise should be made part of a college discipline, and allowance should be for success in it, along with literary qualification."

Between 1882 and 1892 Bombay Government took a number of measures for the development of physical education. The Central Sir Dinsha Manekji Petit Gymnasium in Bombay was given a building grant as well as a recurring grant for its staff on condition that it trained competent teachers of gymnastics. This may be described as the first training scheme organized for the teachers of physical education in the Bombay State. Besides, Bombay Government granted playgrounds to schools wherever Government land was available and even grants in cash were paid for the purchase of playgrounds. All the Government high schools were provided gymnasias and playgrounds. Equipment for physical education was supplied to primary schools. Inspectors were instructed to pay particular attention to physical education. School gymkhanas became a more regular feature of secondary schools. European activities like cricket, gymnastic drill, callisthenics, and Indian activities like hututu, khokho, mullkhamb, wrestling etc., were among the usual physical education programmes of the schools. As yet no regular grants were instituted, but special grants for physical education were given for purchase of apparatus.

Early in 1894, it was suggested to Bombay Government that in Colleges and High Schools attendance at the gymnasium or the playgrounds should be made compulsory and a student who had not obtained a certificate of attendance in the gymnasium or on the playground from the principal of his institute should not be permitted to appear at any of the higher examinations of the University. It was thought that a student might be allowed his choice of the particular form of exercise which would suit his need and aptitude, provided that a certificate of his having undergone physical training of some kind for a certain number of days was required as a guarantee that each student had paid attention to the improvement of his body as well as of his mind.

The aforesaid suggestion was circulated to the heads of the colleges and high schools; but the response was not favourable. After a careful consideration of the replies received, Government came to the conclusion that there was "no need for insisting on compulsory attend-

ance to athletic exercises; the reports received and the account of physical education appended to the Director of Public Instruction's annual report showed that there was a distinct voluntary inclination towards athletic exercises and His Excellency in Council believe that that was a better way of inducing a general appreciation of active-outdoor exercise than by making it a part of the college or school curriculum..... His Excellency in Council would watch with interest the voluntary movement, and if it would continue at its present rate of progress the necessity for compulsion would not arise."

It is an idle speculation to imagine what might have happened if physical education had really been made compulsory in 1894-95 at the suggestion of the Bombay Government. But one cannot help feeling that a good opportunity was lost for no insuperable difficulties. During the next eighteen years, therefore, physical education continued to plod on along the general lines as indicated earlier during the early British period and thereafter.

A gradual feeling began to develop that the policy laid down in 1894-95 had become obsolete and that the time to give a new lead had at last arrived.

Period in Which Non-Officials and Popular Institutions Showed Great Advance But Government Fell Short of Funds

Physical Education Between 1912 and 1937

During the first decade of the twentieth century physical education based on Swedish gymnastics, games and sports was introduced as a part of the educational curriculum in Britain. The British educational authorities in India took a similar step in the European schools and also in the well-to-do schools meant for the sons of nawabs, rajahas and the nobility. The missionary schools, too, were always ahead in everything. For example, in 1903, the St. Joseph's High School at Bellary in South India used the after school hours for physical training exercises for all students.

The Government of India itself was aware of its responsibilities to help lay the foundations of a sound system of education all over the country; so in 1912 the Education Department of the Government of India allotted a non-recurring grant of Rs. 25 lakhs for distribution in all provinces for school hygiene and also for the purchase of playfields. This encouraged organized games in the country as a part of educational programme, with its desirable and healthy effect.

In 1908 Dr. J. Henry Gray had established the first Young Men's Christian Association (Y.M.C.A.) in India at Calcutta, Bengal. Many other Y.M.C.A. associations followed in India, Burma and Ceylon. With the advent of the Y.M.C.A., the Indian physical education programme changed from 'Swedish gymnastics and military drill' to one of individual and team sports and recreation activities. In addition to English sports of field hockey, rugby, football, cricket and soccer, the Y.M.C.A. introduced volleyball, basketball, track and field athletics, and playground ball. The Y.M.C.A. approach to calisthenics and drills was quite different from that of the retired military instructors of the previous thirty years. The playground movement was initiated, and recreation systems were established in the larger metropolitan areas.

Out of the grant of Rs.25 lakhs mentioned above the Y.M.C.A. in India also received a substantial subsidy to meet the salary of a physical director whose services were also utilized by the Education Department of the Government of India. Mr. P.C. Wren was the physical director of the Y.M.C.A. in India. Under his leadership a class was held in 1913 by the Education Department in Poona to train teachers to teach simple physical training exercises and games in their respective schools. A handbook for the guidance of these teachers was also published.

This grant enabled all the European schools in Madras to create a post of physical director and to give further impetus to organized games which were already existing in such schools.

The drive for educational reform which was started by Curzon in the early years of this twentieth century was reflected in the field of physical education also. Plans for the training of teachers of physical education and the organization of physical activities in schools on modern lines were, therefore, prepared and put into effect in 1913. In 1913, Mr. P.C. Wren was placed on special duty to train teachers. Mr. Wren conducted a class at Poona as mentioned earlier. As a result of this class, the drill system devised by Mr. Wren was adopted in almost all Government schools. It was soon reported that the system answered its purpose very well and that the exercises served as an excellent means of relaxation in the course of class lessons. But mainly owing to the small number of teachers trained, namely 27 Government teachers and 4 teachers from aided schools, the work of Mr. Wren did not exercise any large scale or lasting influence on the movement of physical education.

After the end of the First World War (1914) there was general awakening in all sections of Indian society. Education was looked at from both national as well as psychological points of view.

The national awakening of the Indian people as a result of national point of view and the outgrowth of Vyayamshalas, Akhadas and Talimkhanas has been dealt with in the earlier pages. Here the psychological point of view has been touched as follows.

An organized programme of physical activities based on children's interests and needs was regarded as essential for good education. A great need was felt for trained teachers of physical education. To fulfil this demand the Y.M.C.A. at Madras took the lead since it was encouraged by the National Council of the Y.M.C.A. of India. Y.M.C.A. Madras established the National Y.M.C.A. school. — First School of Physical Education in India in 1920, under the selfless devoted Principal, Mr. H.C. Buck. Since 1931-32, this school was known as the Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education and has gained international reputation. Since July 1940 the institution is co-educational and offers three types of course: Diploma, Government Certificate High Grade, and Government Certificate Lower Grade. Thousands of young men and women have gone out of this college as trained teachers of physical education and are to be found all over the country.

By the end of 1920 the well-organized government schools had a good lay-out for physical education. Outdoor games received a good deal of encouragement and became popular. Private sports clubs were formed at important centres in the main cities. By this time the importance of physical education as a part of the educational curriculum received recognition by the higher educational authorities. Drill masters were employed in the schools. They conducted all physical activities and worked with enthusiasm and devotion. But their educational background was too low and hence much different from other members of the school staff, and this tended to set them apart.

Government, therefore, decided to make more permanent arrangement for the training of teachers in physical education. For this purpose, a special post of the Director of Physical Education was created in 1925, and Mr. Fred Weber of the Y.M.C.A., Bombay, was appointed to it. He gave an impetus to physical education by conducting courses of physical training and mass drill in some of the larger cities of Maharashtra, Gujarat and Sind. The system advocated by Mr. Fred Weber was taken up in Government Secondary Schools and given considerable publicity. Since Mr. Fred Weber received offer from Hyderabad Deccan in 1927, Mr. Weber was succeeded by Dr. A.G. Neohren, but owing to financial stringency his contract was terminated in 1928.

The Government College of Physical Education was established at Hyderabad — Deccan — in 1931 with Mr. Fred Weber as Principal. Mr.

Weber belonged to Y.M.C.A. and before coming to Hyderabad had done good work for physical education in Bihar and Bombay. It was mainly due to his efforts that physical education was made compulsory in all the primary, middle and high schools in the former State of Hyderabad. Mr. Weber remained Principal till 1945. In 1952, the College was placed under private management and for five years it was known as the Academy of Physical Education. It then reverted to Government control. Its course lasts one academic year, at the end of which graduates are awarded diploma and non-graduate certificates.

Mr. Wren, Mr. Weber and Dr. Noehren could not succeed in making any lasting impression on the programmes of physical education in the schools of Maharashtra, partly because they had no training institution to work through and partly because the continuity of their work was broken by the retrenchment consequent upon the world economic depression of 1929.

In 1930 Mr. James Buchanan, physical director of the Y.M.C.A. at Calcutta, called a meeting for the organization of Youth Welfare Councils on provincial basis composed of influential and interested citizens. The Councils were to work with existing military organizations, improve the health of India's youth through the extension of health service and instruction in schools, and provide qualified leadership by establishing a college of physical education in each province and additional training for selected leaders abroad. The Buchanan Plan proved to be of major significance in the development of physical education both before and after the partition of India.

The Government of Bengal established in 1932 the Government College of Physical Education at Calcutta. Mr. James Buchanan was appointed as Principal. His conscientious training of teachers was so highly regarded that even today some of the private institutions in Bengal advertise for a 'Buchanan Trained' Teacher of Physical Education. In 1956, it became co-educational.

In 1932 the Christian College of Physical Education was established under private missionary management at Lucknow. Dr. Arthur W. Howard was appointed as Principal. The College is a unit of Lucknow Christian College and under the control of its Board of Governors. Trained teachers of physical education are recognized by the Uttar Pradesh Department of Public Instruction. The present course lasts one academic year, admitting graduates to the diploma course and undergraduates to the certificate course.

A pioneer experiment in physical education, undertaken by the University of Bombay during this period, deserves special notice. The Physical Education Committee (1927) writes:

"The Principals of three Arts Colleges at Poona (Rawbinson, Kanitkar and Shah) have for more than one year successfully carried out a scheme of compulsory physical training of the students of these colleges The scheme created great enthusiasm among the students and has worked very successfully for over three college terms. The interesting part of this experiment is that gymnastics, games and drill have been co-ordinated and a touch of military training has been given with a view to create interest."

In 1927, the Bombay Government appointed a special Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri K.M. Munshi to study the problem of physical education in the State. It was directed (1) to review the measures taken in the past for physical training of the pupils in primary and secondary schools, (2) to determine the results achieved by these measures, and (3) to suggest further measures for the improvement of physical education in general. The Committee made several useful recommendations on a rather ambitious scale. These recommendations included (1) the creation of a Central Board of Physical Education, (2) the organization of a regular Physical Education Section in the Education Department under the control of a Director of Physical Education who would be assisted by a number of Deputy Directors of Physical Education for Boys' Schools, a Directress of Physical Education for Girls' Schools, and a number of Supervisors of Physical Education under them, and (3) the setting up of a number of Training Institutions for the preparation of Teachers of Physical Education. But unfortunately the report of the Committee was submitted in 1929, the year in which the world economic depression began, and consequently no action was taken on its recommendations on the ground of financial stringency.

It will be seen from the above review that Government was not able to take adequate measures for the development of physical education during this period. The deficiency, however, was made up to some extent by the growth of non-official efforts in this field. These were the days when the Movement for National Education was at its height; and as Programmes of Physical Education were given a large emphasis in National Education, the work of awakening public conscience in this matter and of training specialized teachers of physical education was undertaken, during this period, by several Non-Official and Popular Institutions, viz. Prof. Manikrao and his Jummadada Vyayam Mandir, Baroda;

Swami Kuvalayananda and his Kaivalyadhama, Lonavla; Ambadaspant Vaidya and his elder brother Anant Krishna Vaidya and their Shree Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amravati; Shivarampant Damle, and his Maharashtra Mandal, Poona; Bhanu Talim and Ambabai Talim, Miraj; Dr. M.N. Natu and the Akhil Maharashtra Shareerik Shikshan Mandal, Poona; Shri Chotubhai Purani and the Gujarat Vyayam Pracharak Mandal, Ahmedabad; Dr. K.S. Mhaskar and the Bombay Physical Culture Association, Bombay; Shri S.R. Bhagwat and the Deccan Gymkhana, Poona; the D.M. Petit Gymnastic Institute, Bombay; Hind Vijay Gymkhana, Baroda etc.

These popular institutions conducted regular short-term classes during holidays and trained an army of men and women in the indigenous physical activities who, in turn, promoted these activities in their respective localities. A large number of teachers trained by Shree H.V.P. Mandal, Amravati, worked in the schools of this state, particularly of Vidarbha. These institutions did very commendable work in popularizing physical education among the young and old people and in promoting the cause of indigenous games and exercises. It may, therefore, be definitely said that it was mainly owing to the efforts of these several Non-Official and Popular Institutions that physical education showed an advance during this period.

SPECIAL COMMITTEES (1937 AND 1945) AND GROWTH OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN BOMBAY STATE

It has been pointed out already how the Government of Bombay was anxious to develop physical education. In 1927 a Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr.K.M. Munshi was appointed to report on physical education, but its recommendations remained in cold storage due to economic stringency that affected India along with other countries of the world. However, with the advent of the Popular Ministry in 1937, physical education received a great impetus. With the assumption of office by the Popular Ministry, Bombay Government again took a very large part in the development of physical education. A number of Special Committees were appointed to investigate into and report upon the various aspects of the problem; large grants were sanctioned for the development of physical education; a special training institute was established for preparing teachers of physical education; a special Inspectorate for physical education was organized; and a special Board to advise Government on matters relating to physical education was created. Consequently, the development of physical education during this period was so great and comprehensive that it has no precedent in the history of education in the Bombay State. Its main events are narrated-briefly in the following paragraphs.

APPOINTMENT OF SPECIAL COMMITTEES

(1) **Swamy Kuvalayananda — Chotubhai Purani Committee (1937)**

The Popular Ministry appointed this First Special Committee in September 1937 (1) to suggest measures for the improvement and development of physical education in the State, and (2) to draw up an actual scheme of Physical Education for Primary and Secondary Schools. The Committee submitted its report within three months and therein recommended the following:

(1) The ideal and objective of physical education should be redefined and the need of integrating physical education with intellectual education should be stressed;

(2) A Standing Advisory Committee or State Board to advise Government on all matters pertaining to physical education should be appointed;

(3) A Supervising Staff for physical education should be appointed;

(4) A Training Institute for the training of teachers in physical education should be established on the same lines as the Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education at Madras;

(5) Short-term Courses in physical education for secondary teachers should be conducted;

(6) Physical education should be introduced as a compulsory subject in all schools;

(7) Indigenous Physical Education Activities should be revived and included in school syllabi; and

(8) There should be recognition of gymnasia for grant-in-aid.

Most of the recommendations of this Committee were accepted by Government and it may be said that the development of physical education in the State during this period and after has been mainly guided by the recommendations of this Committee. For example, the Training Institute for Physical Education was established by the Government in 1938 at Kandivli (Bombay) with Mr. P.M. Joseph as Principal. Mr. P.M. Joseph worked as Principal for nearly 20 years and gave the College a sound foundation. His administrative capacities attracted the attention of Education Ministry,

Government of India. In 1957, he was appointed Principal, Lakshminibai College of Physical Education, Gwalior, established by the Union Ministry of Education.

(2) Swami Kuvalayananda Committee (1945)

Government appointed this second Special Committee (1) to report on the working and future development of the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli; and (2) to report on the general progress of physical education in the State. This Committee submitted its report in 1946 and made the following recommendations:

- (1) The ideal of world citizenship may be achieved through a properly organized programme of physical education;
- (2) The State Board of Physical Education should be reconstituted with a full-time paid Secretary;
- (3) A new post of the State Inspector of Physical Education should be created and he should be given an adequate subordinate staff;
- (4) The conditions at the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, should be improved and its staff should be made permanent;
- (5) One Year Certificate Course in Physical Education should be conducted for matriculate teachers, and private institutions should be recognized for that purpose;
- (6) Private institutions should also be recognized for conducting Short-term Courses in Physical Education for Secondary Teachers;
- (7) Short-term Courses in Physical Education for Primary Teachers should also be instituted;
- (8) An Examination in Physical Education should be instituted for all secondary school pupils;
- (9) A Chief School Medical Officer should be appointed and a scheme for the medical inspection of school children should be organized; and
- (10) The Grant-in-Aid to secondary schools and gymnasia should be increased from 25 per cent to 33½ per cent.

Most of the recommendations of this Committee also were accepted by the Government.

State Board of Physical Education

On the recommendation made by the First Special Physical Education Committee (1937), Government appointed State Board of Physical Education in 1938. On the recommendations of the Second Special Physical Education Committee (1945), the Board was reconstituted and made to consist of 16 non-official and 5 official members, instead of 5 non-official and 3 official members. It was also given a full-time Secretary and an independent office in Bombay.

Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli

On the recommendation made by the First Special Physical Education Committee (1937), this Institute was started at Kandivli in November 1938, with the object of training teachers of Physical Education. This residential Institute had offered one year Diploma Course for graduates of recognized universities. Besides, this Institute organized short-term courses of three months duration for teachers in secondary schools. These short-term courses, however, were discontinued in 1952 partly as a measure of economy and partly because intensive courses of one year's duration, called Certificate Courses, began to be organized as a better alternative.

The main contribution of this Institute had been to supply qualified teachers of physical education to the secondary schools and colleges in the State and also to provide a cadre of trained Inspecting Officers for physical education. They have been able to give a new orientation to the concept of physical education and have succeeded in introducing better methods of teaching the subject. The Institute had also been able to overcome the old prejudice that physical education was a job of inadequately or poorly educated 'drill masters' and had given large currency to the view that good intellectual education and good physical education ought to go hand-in-hand if an integrated personality was to be created. This Institute discontinued to offer Diploma Course and replaced it by H.D.Ed. course which was later on replaced by B.Ed. (Physical Education) course, affiliated to Bombay University. At present this institute is abolished and attempts are on foot to establish the State Institute for Physical Education in the same campus.

Non-Official Efforts for Training Teachers of Physical Education

The leadership supplied by the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, was too much inadequate to meet the total requirement

of the schools and colleges of the Bombay State. Other non-official efforts had to be undertaken simultaneously.

The second Special Physical Education Committee (1945) had recommended that private institutions should be recognized for conducting courses in physical education for secondary teachers. Government had accepted this recommendation. Accordingly the Samarth Vyayam Mandir, Dadar; the Chotubhai Purani Gujarat Vyayam Mahavidyalaya, Rajpipla; the Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya conducted by the Shikshan Prasarak Mandali, Poona; Bharateeya Shareerik Shikshan Mahavidyalaya, conducted by Shree Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amravati and many more had been granted permission to start Certificate course in physical education of one year's duration for matriculates.

At this juncture a special mention of the contribution of Shree Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amravati will not be out of place, since this is internationally known, privately managed, pioneering physical education institute of its own kind in India. This Mandal was founded in 1914 at Amravati by the two Vaidya brothers named Ambadasant and Anantrao. Since its foundation the Mandal has played an important role in promoting the cause of physical education in India. The Mandal has gained popularity because of its policy to review traditional Maharashtrian and other indigenous exercises. In 1924, a five-week summer course was introduced with the object of training young men and women in indigenous forms of physical training exercises. Since then the summer courses have become an annual feature of the Mandal. Thousands of men and women from various parts of the country have been attending this course. On completion of this summer course trainees receive certificates like Vyayam Pravesh, Vyayam Visharad and Vyayam Parangat, according to the number of summer courses he has undergone.

In 1947, the Mandal introduced a Diploma Course in Physical Education. It was a regular course of one year's duration and had received recognition by the Ministry of Education, Government of India.

The Mandal at present conducts (1) Bharateeya Shareerik Shikshan Mahavidyalaya that offers one year Certificate Course in Physical Education for Non-Maharashtrian Matriculates, (2) Junior College of Education (Physical Education) since 1969, that offers two years' course for Maharashtrian Matriculates, (3) Degree College of Physical Education, since 1967, that offers

- (a) One years' course called D.P. Ed. (now B.P. Ed.) for graduates,
- (b) Three years' degree course called B.P.E. for higher secondary passed,

- (c) Two years' post-graduate course, called M.P.E. for regular students,
- (d) Three years' post-graduate course, called Vocational M.P.E. for in-service teachers, and

(4) Ramkrishna Kreed Vidyalaya from standard V to XII, including Junior College with Science bias. Till May 1983, Degree College of Physical Education was affiliated to Nagpur University, but now it is affiliated to Amravati University. The H.V.P. Mandal, Amravati has recently established Ambadaspant Vaidya Research Institute and under its supervision comprehensive Sports Science Research Laboratory is being equipped.

Training of Head Masters in Physical Education

With a view to promote the cause of physical education in secondary schools, Government conducted two courses for Head Masters at the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli. These courses were discontinued in 1941 as a measure of economy.

Training of Primary Teachers in Physical Education

In 1939, the syllabus of the training colleges for primary teachers was revised and a new orientation was given to the course of physical education provided therein. It was also laid down that teachers trained at the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, should be appointed on the staff of every primary teachers' Training College. It was thus hoped that primary teachers trained under the new course would automatically receive the necessary training in physical education. The practical experience of this reform was very encouraging. Government, therefore, made Physical Education a Certificate subject in the primary training college course in 1950-51.

But even this reform left out a very large number of primary teachers who had either been trained in the old days when physical education was not much emphasised or had remained untrained for one reason or the other. As Government had accepted the principle that every primary teacher should receive some training in physical education, it became necessary to conduct special training classes in physical education for these teachers. In the beginning, this work has entrusted to the local authorities who were required to conduct such special courses. Efforts made by such local authorities, however, were neither systematic nor regular. Government, therefore, decided to undertake this activity

direct and sanctioned a detailed programme of training which was spread over two stages. The scheme was started with a budget provision of Rs.2,30,000 in 1947-48 and 1948-49; but due to various practical difficulties both the scale and scope of the scheme had to be reduced in subsequent years.

Inspectorate for Physical Education

Following the recommendations of the First Special Physical Education Committee (1937), physical education was made a compulsory subject for primary and secondary schools in the Bombay State in 1938, and, in consequence, every school was required to make due provision for physical education. It was, therefore, felt necessary to organize a special Inspectorate to guide the schools on matters relating to physical education. Accordingly, Government created two posts of Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors for Physical Education in each division in 1939. These officers were attached to the offices of the Divisional Educational Inspectors and their duties included (1) the inspection of physical education in all secondary schools, (2) the inspection of gymnasia, (3) the supervision of physical education in selected primary schools, and (4) the conduct of Short-term Courses in Physical Education for Primary Teachers.

There was no post of a State Inspector for Physical Education at this period; but the A.D.E.Is for P.E. received guidance from the Chairman of the Board of Physical Education who used to tour extensively in the State and devote a good deal of his time to this work.

Following the recommendations of the second Special Physical Education Committee (1945), the post of the State Inspector for Physical Education was created, but it was decided to appoint only two A.D.E.Is for Physical Education in each district. Accordingly 42 posts of such A.D.E.Is were created.

The main duty of the State Inspector for Physical Education was to supervise the organization of physical education in primary and secondary schools. Additional duties: (1) to assist the Director of Education in all administrative matters pertaining to physical education, recreation and youth welfare activities; (2) to conduct examinations for the Certificate Course in Physical Education; (3) to guide the tournaments in games and other activities and to pay grants for them; (4) to promote pupil leadership and to develop a spirit of social service among the pupils, through pupil leaders' classes, scouting, school volunteer camps, etc.; and (5) to organize propaganda for physical education.

Physical Education in Primary and Secondary Schools

Prior to 1937, physical education was generally regarded as being equivalent to "School Drill" which was an extraneous activity, entirely optional in character and frequently looked down upon even by the pupils. To be 'delicate' in health and 'strong' in mind was a matter of pride.

Since 1937, physical education has been regarded as an integral part of general education and made compulsory for all school children. The first syllabus for physical education was introduced in 1938. In the light of the experience gained, the syllabuses for standards I to IV, V to VII and VIII to XI were revised time to time.

Following measures had been adopted to carry out this reform:

(1) One period a day had been provided in standards I to VII, five periods a week in standard VIII, and four periods a week in standards IX and X.

(2) A special and detailed syllabus for physical education for each of the standards I to XI had been drawn up and adopted in all schools.

(3) It had been laid down that secondary schools should try to provide one Diploma-holder in Physical Education for every 250 pupils.

(4) It had been laid down that every class-teacher in primary schools should be trained to impart instruction in physical education.

(5) Efforts had been made to provide adequate playgrounds to as many schools as possible.

(6) Grants were given for purchase or acquisition of playgrounds. Rents of playgrounds were admitted for recurring grants.

(7) Expenditure incurred on the purchase of approved equipment for physical education was admitted for grant-in-aid.

(8) Physical education had been made an examination subject in secondary schools, and a scheme of examination had been circulated for guidance.

(9) The schools had been encouraged to organize tournaments, excursions, camps, picnics, hiking parties, etc.

(10) A scheme of school uniform had been recommended and encouraged.

In short, it may be said that during this period physical education had come to occupy an inseparable and important place in the primary and secondary schools.

Physical Education in Colleges

The important features of the University Ordinance of 1938 regarding compulsory physical education in colleges were as follows:

- (1) Heads of institutions should submit at the beginning of the academic year a programme of physical education activities together with a detailed time-table of the classes, expected to report for physical training.
- (2) The physical training should be compulsory for all, except the members of the U.T.C., the members of the college teams preparing for Inter-collegiate tournaments, and the medically unfit.
- (3) There should be in every college at least one trained physical instructor to implement the required physical training.
- (4) Each class should report for a period of 30 minutes per day and thus three days a week.
- (5) Every student should attend the training class for $5/4$ of the possible number of periods in a year.
- (6) A scheme for the medical inspection of college students should be adopted.
- (7) Heads of institutions should submit at the end of the academic year the attendance records and a detailed report of the execution of programme.

The above features were tried in 1938 in the University of Bombay and were later on adopted by the other universities in the Bombay State.

These Universities have been organizing Inter-College and Inter-University Sports every year. These are becoming increasingly popular and a larger proportion of students has been participating in them.

Medical Inspection

Government had introduced medical inspection for school pupils, on compulsory basis, and every student was required to undergo medical

examination at least thrice during his school life. A detailed form had been prescribed for the purpose and the expenditure incurred by schools on such examination had been admitted for grant purposes.

Propaganda

Under the new scheme of physical education adopted by Government since 1937, it had been regarded as a duty of the schools to observe annually "Physical Education Days". The programmes for these days should include mass drills, sports-meets, tournaments, school cleanliness and village uplift campaigns etc.

Gymnasia

On the recommendation of the First Special Physical Education Committee (1937), gymnasia were recognised as educational institutions for the first time in the history of education in the State of Bombay. The rules for the recognition of and grants-in-aid payment to gymnasia were framed in 1939. They insisted on the following conditions:

(1) Management by competent and reliable persons; (2) Admission to be given on non-communal basis; (3) Following the prescribed course of physical education; (4) Maintaining adequate and well-qualified instructors; (5) Maintaining buildings, premises etc., in good and healthy conditions; (6) Providing adequate equipment; (7) Providing for medical inspection for the members on the roll; (8) Having a minimum average daily attendance of 20 members; and (9) Maintaining systematic records and proper accounts.

Institutions fulfilling the above conditions have been sanctioned a grant both on recurring and non-recurring expenditure to the extent of 25 per cent of the expenditure incurred. This upper limit was increased to 33½ per cent in 1946. In recent years, however, the actual grant given to the gymnasia falls much below the upper limits prescribed because it has not been possible to increase the budget allotment for the purpose in proportion to the increase in the number of recognised gymnasia.

Summary

The foregoing review of the growth of physical education during the period when two Special Committees on physical education were appointed by the Government of Bombay will show:

A properly organized movement for the development of physical education in the Bombay State was instituted only under the Popular Ministry which came into office in 1937. The achievement of Government in the field of physical education was not only pioneering but also outstanding. Yet a number of measures were still needed to make the physical education programme a mass movement. The position of playgrounds for schools in cities was still far from satisfactory, and the provision of equipment for schools in rural areas needed much attention. Although a good deal had been done to provide teachers of physical education for secondary schools, the physical training of primary teachers needed to be further accelerated. Similarly, physical education in the Universities could not be said to have been organized on very effective lines. The problems of adult recreation, women's physical education, school medical examination, malnutrition, etc., had not received the required attention.

It was obvious that the problems of such magnitude could not be tackled successfully only with the available resources of the Bombay State. Yet the Bombay Government had taken the lead and shown the way. It was expected of the non-official enterprise to step forth and complete the pioneering work of the Government.

ROLE OF CENTRAL ADVISORY BOARD OF EDUCATION IN DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

Establishment

The Central Advisory Board of Education, the oldest and the most important advisory body of the Government of India in education, was established in 1935.

The idea that there should be a Central Advisory Board of Education was first put forward by the Calcutta University Commission (1917-19) which felt "that the Government of India can perform an invaluable function by defining the general aims of educational policy, by giving advice and assistance to local governments and to Universities and by supplying organized information as to the development of educational ideas in the various provinces, and also elsewhere than in India". Almost simultaneously the Government of India Act, 1919, decided to make education mainly a provincial and a transferred subject and to limit the 'control' of the Central Government over it to the minimum. This fundamental decision changed the character of the Government of India from that of an execu-

tive to an advisory authority; and consequently, the secretariat Procedure Committee set up to implement the Government of India Act, 1919, observed that, in future, the executive authority of the Government of India would be mainly exercised through moral persuasion and recommended that, "in place of giving executive orders, it should tend more and more to become a centre of the best information, research and advice". This recommendation made the adoption of the suggestion made earlier by the Calcutta University Commission all the more imperative and accordingly, a Central Advisory Board of Education was set up in 1921. It did a good deal of useful work but owing to financial crisis calling for drastic retrenchments, it had to be abolished in 1923. For the next twelve years, there was no central body to advise the Government of India on educational matters. Soon however a feeling of regret at the discontinuance of the Central Advisory Board was felt and the matter was continuously discussed until the present Central Advisory Board of Education was constituted, owing to the efforts of the Late Sir Girja Shankar Bajpai, in September, 1935. Since then it has been a practice of the Ministry of Education to refer every important problem in education to this Board for its opinion and advice. Consequently, the recommendations of this Board cover every important problem in every sector of education.

The practice adopted by the Board has been to hold one meeting every year, although the record of 1960 shows that there were no meetings in 1937 and 1939 and two meetings each in 1938, 1943 and 1950.

Functions

In 1935, its functions were defined very broadly as follows:

(a) to advise on any educational question which may be referred to it by the Government of India or by any local government; (b) to call for information and advice regarding educational developments of special interest or value to India; to examine the information and to circulate it with its recommendations to the Government of India and local governments.

After Independence and under the new Constitution, the defining of 'educational policies' became a partnership between the Centre and the States and this increased the significance of the Board as the supreme organ in which the Centre and the States collaborated for this purpose.

Composition and Character of Membership

No radical change in this broad definition of functions has undergone, but the composition of the Board had to be modified from time to

time, mainly because of constitutional changes or reorganisation of states. The character of the membership, however, has remained unchanged and the Board has throughout included distinguished educationists from all parts of the country and the representatives of the Government of India, the State Governments, the Legislature, and the Universities. There is no other Advisory Board in the Ministry of Education which has such a distinguished educationaly talented composition and it lends a unique significance to its deliberations and recommendations.

Board's Opinions on Health of School Children

(1) The Proceedings of the Sixth Meeting (1941) of the Board were opened by the Chairman, the Hon'ble Sir Girja Shankar Bajpai. The Item XII of the proceedings was, "The Board considered the memorandum submitted on behalf of the Central Advisory Board of Health (CABH) as the outcome of the discussion at its third meeting held in Poona in July 1940. The Board noted with satisfaction that their Chairman who is also Chairman of the C.A.B.H. proposed to appoint a Joint Committee to consider the steps which might be taken to improve the physical condition of school children. The Board decided to leave to the Chairman the selection of the educationists to serve on the proposed Joint Committee."

"The Board felt that pending the report of the committee a considerable advance might be made if the courses for teachers in training colleges and schools were expanded to include training in practical hygiene."

(2) The Item XIV of the proceedings of the Seventh Meeting (1942) was: "The Board had before them the report of the Joint Committee appointed by their late Chairman at the request of the Central Advisory Board of Health and Education to consider the steps to be taken to improve the physical condition of school children. The Board approved the recommendations of the Committee subject to the following modification in recommendation No.55."

"The fees to be charged for tuition in secondary schools in urban areas should include a contribution towards the cost of medical inspection and treatment."

The Sargent Plan of Post-War Educational Development in India (1944)

The Sargent Plan lays down the targets to be reached at each stage of education, indicates the manner in which the different stages and fields of

education are to be integrated with one another, estimates the cost of implementing its recommendations, and suggests a tentative programme spread over 40 years for the realization of its objectives.

This great document has a historical significance of its own as the first attempt made in the country for devising a national system of education which could be compared with the then prevailing systems of education in the progressive countries of the West.

The preparation of this 'Plan of Post-War Educational Development' is one of the most outstanding contributions which the Central Advisory Board has made to the solution of India's educational problems and it may be said that the modern movement for educational planning in India began with the Sargent Plan of 1944, since this Plan was the first document to be prepared with the object of visualising a national system of education for India.

It is proper to refer at this point to the following proceeding of the Tenth Meeting (1944) of the Central Advisory Board of Education to understand what the Sargent Plan had suggested regarding the school health service and what the Central Advisory Board had to say about it.

"The Board recommended that a complete scheme of school health service, as set out in the Board's plan for Post-War Educational Development, might be introduced in selected areas. In this connection the Board also wished to emphasise the great and urgent need for training a sufficiently large medical personnel. The hope was further expressed that the Health Survey Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Health would take into account the proposals contained in the Board's Report on Post-War Educational Development regarding the Health of the School Child and Physical Education in Schools."

Board's New View

Not Expansion But Implementation

Although the plans for educational reconstructions were broadly ready, no large-scale implementation was immediately possible in view of the tremendous problems created by political upheavals. The political background underwent a complete revolution with the attainment of Independence, the integration of the princely states and the Constitution.

In view of the political and other difficulties, the Central Advisory Board of Education in India focussed its deliberations on the preparations

of the detailed plans or with preliminaries to implementation of plans those were already ready rather than on a drive for the expansion and improvement of education.

The Tara Chand Committee on Secondary Education in India (1948)

In May 1948, the Government of India set up this Committee. The Report of this Committee covers all the factors involved in a programme of physical education and the improvement of the standard of games and sports, including Olympic Sports.

The Committee has made detailed recommendations concerning the Central Institute of Physical Education for men and women. The Committee felt that in drawing up the courses, every endeavour should be made to utilize the indigenous material on physical education to the best advantage to secure its proper integration with the Western system in such a way, as may ultimately be conducive to the evolution of a national system of sports, games and exercises.

The Committee has suggested a Degree of three years' duration after Intermediate, the latter part of which should be bifurcated as that student might specialize either in Physical Education or Recreation. The course should involve both theoretical subjects and practical activities. A Post-Graduate Course of one year's duration was suggested, open only to those graduates "who shall have put in at least two years in Physical Education or Recreational Vocations", consisting of five subjects as follows: (1) Methods of Research; (2) Tests and Measurements; (3) Organization and Administration; (4) Study of Physical Education Movements in Different Countries and (5) One Elective in Activities.

The Committee recommended that Youth Movements, Scout Movements etc., should be encouraged in all schools.

National Cadet Corps (1948)

The British introduced the University Training Corps (U.T.C.) in all the important universities of India. The U.T.C. was a scheme mainly responsible for the development of the Indian Army. The U.T.C. formed part of the Indian Territorial Force (I.T.F.), and vigorous training was given mostly under British Army Officers from the rank of Sergeants to senior officers. After Independence the National Cadet Corps (N.C.C.) scheme has been established in 1948 by an Act of the Government of India (1948). The N.C.C. Scheme is based on the British pattern of U.T.C.

The aims of the N.C.C. as set out by the Corps Directorate, are:

(a) The development of leadership, character, comradeship, and the ideal of service; and (b) the stimulation of interest in the defence of the country to the widest possible extent. The N.C.C. is attached to educational institutions in order to give elementary military training on a voluntary basis to young students both men and women.

The National Cadet Corps is being recruited in three Divisions:

(a) The Senior, (b) The Junior and (c) The Girls. The three together cover more than 80% of school-going population from 13 to 18 plus age groups. The N.C.C. to begin with, consisted of (1) Senior Division, comprising Army, Navy and Air Wings, confined to Universities and Colleges; (2) Junior Division confined to schools; and (3) Girls' Division comprising both Senior and Junior Divisions. In 1952-53 Auxiliary Cadet Corps (A.C.C.) was set up within the N.C.C. as an inexpensive complement of the Junior Division N.C.C. The A.C.C. was introduced partly because of the shortage of funds and partly because of the shortage of Army Instructors to carry out the full work of the N.C.C. The A.C.C. trains school teachers in elementary military drill. These trained teachers are then placed in charge of the A.C.C. programme in their respective schools. However, Army Instructors are also deputed in schools to help the A.C.C. programme.

The N.C.C. programme is more vigorous than the A.C.C. programme. In 1960 N.C.C. Rifles was formed to offer N.C.C. training to a large number of college students.

The principal expenditure for the National Cadet Corps is dependent upon grant from the Provinces, but the Government of India maintains the Central Organization in the Ministry of Defence which exercises control over the Senior Division and assists Provinces in running the Junior and Girls' Divisions of the Corps. Regular army officers, on Government pay, are assigned to supervise N.C.C. units. The Central Government also provides arms, ammunition, equipment and clothing that may be required for training purposes of the units.

Since its institution in 1948, the N.C.C. has been gaining increasing popularity from year to year as a national youth movement. Fulfilling the initial expectation, the N.C.C. has recorded unprecedented expansion particularly following the emergency created by the foreign aggression on the country's soil in the NEFA Sector in October 1962. In 1965, the total strength of N.C.C. was 1.3 million, the Senior Division comprising 400,000 and the Junior Division 900,000.

The complement of officers for the Corps is from the teaching staff on the institutions in which the units are raised.

Training is carried out only during term period, but outside the academic curriculum. Four hours in a week are devoted for training. Besides, the officers and cadets are required to attend 10-14 day camps, annual training camps, combined cadre and social service camps and also all-India Camps.

The N.C.C. is under the Defence Ministry of India with a separate Department under the Director General who is an officer of high military rank. There are 16 directors all over the country. Each Director has a Station Commander and a Unit Commander.

For ease of administration the state units of N.C.C. are sometimes affiliated to Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare Services, wherever such Directorate exists.

The Radhakrishnan Commission on University Education (1948-49)

It was appointed by the Government of India to report on Indian University Education and suggest improvements and extensions that may be decided to suit present and future requirements of the country. It made useful recommendations for the promotion of physical education for the students along with other educational programmes.

The general deficiencies of physical education at the time of independence have been well summarized by this University Education Commission (1948-49):

"We may say there is lack of interest both on the part of the students and the authorities, insufficient trained personnel, dearth of playgrounds and equipment, poverty of students, absence of organization, poor types of programmes, small variety of games, conflict with academic work, and inconvenience of time. These seem to be the most recurrent obstacles."

The Commission was of the view that little improvement could be accomplished without establishing the prestige and importance of the work. More expert leadership and adequate staff should be provided, and the professional status and pay of physical education personnel should be recognized as on a par with academic instruction. The provision of gymnasias, playgrounds and equipment was also essential.

The Commission also advised : "Health habits should be ingrained into school children and systematically inculcated to the college stage if our young men and women are to have the physical and mental health which is essential to individual and national power and happiness."

The Commission recommended: (1) Degree Courses in Physical Education be set up in certain universities. There should be at least one such degree course in each province; (2) Each University and College should appoint a properly qualified (either a M.D. or a Ph. D.) director of physical education who should have the status and pay of other Heads of Departments, (3) All the recommendations of the Tara Chand Committee, particularly about the establishment of the Central Institute of Physical Education, should undergo execution and this Central Institute should offer as a post-graduate degree to teach advanced courses leading to specialization in various fields of physical education e.g. Organization, Administration, Recreation etc. Such post-graduate degree course leading to a doctorate should be set up at one University in each province where Directors of Physical Education may be trained. (4) There must be provision of adequate gymnasias, playgrounds and physical facilities. (5) There must be enlarged staff for compulsory physical training during assigned physical education periods. (6) Two years of Physical Education should be required of All University Students except the physically unfit and those in the National Cadet Corps. (7) The Department of Physical Education should be headed by the Director of Physical Education who should look after —

- (a) Courses in Physical Education,
- (b) The gymnasium and gymnastics, boxing, wrestling, Indian exercises etc.
- (c) Inter-University and Inter-College Competitions and
- (d) Intra-Mural Competitions; and

(8) The present plan of National Cadet Corps would not give students the amount of type of training required to make effective soldiers in case of emergency. To make Corps more effective for national defence, the following suggestions were made:

- (a) The Centre should take over from the Provinces and States the responsibility for the Administration of the Corps,
- (b) The Centre should detail regular officers and men from the Army, Navy and Air Corps for instruction in the Universities and Colleges.
- (c) There should be a thorough inspection of all Units at least once a year by regular officers who are not associated with the Units.

A Special Session of the Central Advisory Board of Education was convened in April 1950 to discuss the afore-referred Report of the Radhakrishnan Commission on University Education (1948-49) which had recommended that the University Grants Commission be set up for allocating grants, and it was on the recommendation of the Board that a University Grants Committee was set up in November 1953. It was also at the suggestion of the Board that the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation was established in 1950, and the recent development of physical education in the country is largely due to this happy beginning.

The Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation (CABPER)

After the attainment of Independence, it was natural that the Government of India should evince keen interest in the promotion of physical education in the country. As a first step, the Government of India set up the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation in 1950. The Union Government's programme for promotion of activities relating to physical education and recreation, including yoga, is generally based on the recommendations of this Board. The publication entitled, 'A National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation,' prepared by the Board and published by the Ministry of Education in 1956, has been the sheet anchor of the Union Government's programme in this field. Besides the National Plan, a number of similar programmes like Auxiliary Cadet Corps and National Discipline Scheme have come into vogue because of the Board.

A secretary with the cabinet of the Ministry of Education is appointed President of Central Advisory Board, responsible for all matters relating to physical education and recreation in India. Physical Education in the school is a State responsibility, and each political unit has a State Director of Physical Education, who in turn is assisted by the local supervisors of physical education in the schools.

The Central Advisory Board has recommended that physical education be required in the elementary and secondary schools and that instruction be consisted of three or four periods a week. As matters stand now, the majority of the states requires physical education in the public schools, but a few still persist in leaving it optional. The Central Advisory Board has been also instrumental in providing financial assistance to the States in the construction of facilities to help implement the school programme. Another contribution of the Central Advisory Board has been

the upgrading of the qualifications of teachers in the elementary and secondary schools. In spite of this good work, the state of physical education in India still hinges upon the debate as to whether or not it should be included among the subjects in which students are examined at the close of their elementary and secondary years. This uncertainty has had a significant influence upon the attitude of the general public toward physical education as well as upon the professional workers in the field. Currently, the State of Maharashtra is the only political unit in India which has made any attempt to solve the problem.

Elementary and Secondary schools do not generally include inter-scholastic athletics and other competitions in the physical education programme. Communities, however, conduct competitions in games and sports for children of elementary school age. Physical education teachers occasionally coach boys and girls, and encourage them to enter state and interstate competitions. In 1955 a championship was sponsored by the School Games Federation of India. In colleges and universities the Inter-University Board of Sports manages and conducts competitions and tournaments.

The National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation

The First National Plan of Physical Education was published by the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation in 1956. The aim and objectives stipulated by this National Plan were as follows:

Aim

The aim of the physical education must be to make every child physically, mentally and emotionally fit and to develop in him such personal and social qualities as well as help him to live happily with others and build him as a good citizen.

Objectives

- (a) The development of organic fitness.
- (b) The development of neuro-muscular skills, and
- (c) The development of character and personality.

This plan graded syllabi in physical education for children of different age groups and recommended facilities for organization of physical education in the educational institutions of the country.

The Hand-Books on Multipurpose Programme of Physical Education

During the six years from 1956 to 1962, the efforts of the Union Ministry of Education in physical education have been directed towards the development of the total personality of the child through physical activities of the kind enunciated by the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation and outlined in detail in "A National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation"

For the successful working of democracy, a country requires not merely an educated community, but a community which is also healthy and physically fit. It is not surprising, therefore, that programmes of physical education have come to be regarded as an integral part of the school curriculum. In the aforesaid "National Plan" two model syllabi of physical education for boys and girls upto higher secondary standard were included, paving the way for the introduction of the physical education programme on a broad uniform pattern throughout the country, with sufficient scope for variations and adaptations to suit local needs and preferences.

The sub-committee for the Syllabus of Physical Education for Boys prepared a list of activities that are classified into seven groups. A teacher has to select a number of activities from each group in order to suit the physical condition of his pupils. The following are the groups:

- (1) Developmental Exercises,
- (2) Exercises on Apparatus,
- (3) Rhythmic Exercises,
- (4) Combative Exercises,
- (5) Games and Relays,
- (6) Athletics and
- (7) Aquatics.

The sub-committee for Syllabus of Physical Education for Girls have pointed out that the syllabus is not to be treated as a text book or a hand book but merely as a guide by those who are working without proper facilities. The activities in the syllabus are based on the following five groups:

- (1) Developmental Exercises,
- (2) Games and Relays,
- (3) Athletics,
- (4) Rhythmics and
- (5) Aquatics.

To translate plans and programmes into reality, however, practical guidance is necessary. The preparation of illustrated handbooks giving details of each activity outlined in the model syllabi has an important part to play in facilitating the early introduction of the programme in schools and its successful implementation. Much labour and thought have gone into the preparation of the "Handbook of Physical Education for School Boys" as well as "Handbook of Physical Education for School Girls".

The Union Ministry of Education prepared these Handbooks in 1962, combining therein Indian Activities as well as Western Games and Sports for the guidance of the teachers and workers in the field who may strive hard to put the model syllabus into effective practice in educational institutions in this country.

These handbooks describe the activities contained in the Syllabus of Physical Education for Boys as well as Girls presented in "A National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation", published by the Ministry of Education in 1956.

This is the first time that the presentation of such books, describing activities suitable for Indian Schools, arranged in a progressive order, has been attempted. Such publications can act as a great stimulant to physical education in Indian Schools. The activities described have paved the way for a pattern of physical education activities that are uniquely Indian and adopted from India's traditional activities and hence are well suited to Indian Schools.

The National Discipline Scheme

The National Discipline Scheme (N.D.S.) owed its origin to the initiative of the late Mr. Jagannathrao K. Bhonsle (Major-General INA) who was Deputy Minister, Rehabilitation in 1954. Mr. Bhonsle arranged a programme of physical activities as well as cultural activities for refugee children. When his programme succeeded he called it the National Discipline Scheme and had it incorporated in the Second Five-Year Plan and also in the Third.

The scheme in its original form was meant for students below 13 years of age, but whenever it was implemented it covered the whole school. The scheme soon spread to the Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, West Bengal, Delhi, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra and even to Andaman and Nicobar Islands but had not been adopted in the South.

In 1957 the scheme was allotted to the Union Ministry of Education for furthering educational development programmes. The aim of the scheme was to develop in younger generations a sense of patriotism and discipline, good citizenship, social unity, removal of parochial tendencies, self-reliance and a spirit of tolerance as well as to make them healthy in body and mind through a planned programme of physical training, mental training, training of cultural development etc. Essentially it was a cultural movement based on vigorous physical training activities, supplemented by history lessons, in order to make good the deficiencies of home life where the environment is not so conducive.

The programme was based on (1) Drill and physical education, (2) Training in patriotism and (3) Cultural activities.

In order to give a systematic form to the scheme, a Central Training Institute was established in October 1960 at Sariska, near Alwar in Rajasthan. The setting up of this Institute was an important landmark in the field with a view to impart uniform training to N.D.S. Instructors. Prior to the establishment of this Institute, the instructors were trained only in batches in short duration camps. This Institution had a provision for training of 600 instructors at a time. In 1963 another training Institute was established at Barwaha (Madhya Pradesh). There was another Training Centre exclusively for ladies at Mahabaleshwar, near Poona. In 1964 two more centres had been established, one at Panchkula (Punjab) and another at Amravati (Maharashtra).

These Training Institutes had been established in order to train instructors for carrying out the scheme in various schools. The trainees were boys and girls between the ages of 18 and 25. The training period was of six months. Trained teachers of physical education are also admitted to a three months' re-orientation course.

The scheme aimed at establishing a net-work of training centres all over the country. In order to implement the scheme on a full-scale basis, there were more than 25,000 qualified National Discipline Scheme Instructors. The scheme was to be made compulsory for all school children in the age group of 9 to 16 plus, that means, students from class V to class XI.

Unfortunately, Mr. Bhonsle died suddenly in 1963 and the scheme began to wane. The main reasons for the failure of this scheme were the immaturity, low academic education as well as physical education of the N.D.S. instructors. Ultimately, the scheme was abolished and its place is taken by National Fitness Core Programme. Trained instructors were absorbed either in the Central or State Services. Initially, a good number of

youth was attracted to it due to the popularity it gained in a relatively short time. But now-a-days these instructors are in the doldrums. A separate directorate of N.F.C. programme at the state level looks after them at present.

The School Games Federation of India

This Federation was founded at Calcutta in 1954 by representatives of the Education Departments of various State Governments who had come to Calcutta to attend the All-India Physical Education Conference. They met at an informal meeting and decided to conduct annually Inter-State National Championships in Games and Sports for High Schools in Order—

- (1) to encourage, promote and popularise all recognized Olympic athletic events and games as well as indigenous national games among school boys and girls of India;
- (2) to work for the physical welfare of school boys and girls of India;
- (3) to hold national and international sports meets for school boys and girls at such places and time as may be determined and to award certificates and prizes for national school games and sports;
- (4) to control and regulate on an amateur basis all kinds of Olympic games and sports and such other kindred activities in cooperation with other State School Athletics and Games Associations throughout the Indian Union;
- (5) to secure adequate participation of athletes in Olympic games and such other international contests in the various branches of sports and games as may be approved by the Federation;
- (6) to promote and assist in the formation of State Associations and to affiliate them; and
- (7) to coordinate inter-state school activities by holding all-India competitions at different centres by rotation as far as possible.

The first national school games meet was held at Pachmari (Madhya Pradesh) in May, 1955. It was proved successful because there were about 300 competitors from seven states.

In 1959 the Federation decided to conduct the sixth meet in two parts—part one consisting of hockey, football and swimming to be held in

October or November and to be known as the Autumn Meet and part two comprising basketball, kabaddi, khokho, table tennis and free-hand gymnastics to be held in the last week of December every year and to be known as the Winter Meet. This decision was taken because the number of competitors at the fifth meet had gone up to 1200 and state affiliations had also increased. By dividing the games into two parts, it was felt that the host state for each part will have to bear less expense.

The competitions are open to boys and girls who are below 19 years of age but they must be on the rolls of recognised secondary schools.

By the year 1964, the Federation was representing 15 states and 4 centrally-administered areas.

The Inter-University Board of Sports and Maulana Abul Kalam Azad Trophy

The first inter-university sports meet was conducted in 1936 at Aligarh by the Aligarh Muslim University. However, inter-university sports and games competitions have now become an annual feature.

Sports and games in the universities have been receiving great impetus from the inter-university tournaments and meets organized annually by the Inter-University Board of Sports of India. To give further incentive to university students to participate actively in the various games and sports, a trophy known as the Abul Kalam Azad Trophy was instituted by the Union Government in 1956. It is awarded annually to the University which sends the largest number of students for participation in national and international sports competitions in an academic year and which does best performance in inter-university competitions.

The Mudaliar Commission on Secondary Education (1952-53)

A number of Commissions had been appointed in the past to survey Indian Education: The Indian Education (Hunter) Commission of 1882, The University Commission of 1902, The Calcutta University (Sadler) Commission of 1917, The Hartog Committee of 1929, The Sapru Committee of 1934 and the recent Radhakrishnan Commission of 1948-49, all of which dealt incidentally with certain aspects of Secondary Education. But no Commission had so far been appointed to survey the problems of secondary education as a whole. The Mudaliar Commission had been entrusted with this responsibility.

The appointment of this Commission had been made very opportunely because there was clear evidence of serious interest in this problem all over the country.

Many recommendations of the above-listed Commissions had not been implemented. Many responsible people had, therefore, questioned the likelihood of any steps being taken to examine and implement the recommendations of this Commission. In reply, this Commission wished to point out that India's needs of today after Independence were different from what they were in the past under foreign domination.

This Secondary Education Commission under the Chairmanship of Dr. Laxmanswami Mudaliar made it clear:

- (1) "that economising in health education and physical welfare is unsound economy because the state has to spend much more on medical services than it would under properly organised schemes of physical and health education";
- (2) "that unless physical education is accepted as an integral part of education and the educational authorities recognize its need in all schools, the youth of the country, which forms its most valuable asset, will never be able to pull their full weight in national welfare"; and
- (3) "that physical education is much more than mere drill or a series of regulated exercises; it includes all forms of physical activities and games which promote the development of the body and mind".

The Commission recommended that the training in physical education should be comprehensive enough to include all aspects of health education; physical activities should be made to suit the individual and his capacity for physical endurance; full records of physical activities should be maintained; teachers of physical education should be given the same status as other teachers of similar qualifications; and other teachers of the school below the age of 40, along with the physical instructor, should actively participate in the many of the physical activities of students. The teachers of physical education should be associated with the teaching of subjects like physiology and hygiene and the existing facilities for the training of teachers of physical education should be expanded by increasing the seats in the existing colleges, by opening new colleges, where necessary, and by reorganizing some of the institutions as All-India Training Centres to which aid may be given both by the Centre and the States. Regarding health education, the Commission emphasized the need for a properly organized school medical service in all States, and a thorough

medical examination of all pupils with follow-up and treatment where necessary.

The Commission also recommended that for special subjects like Physical Education, Domestic Science, Art, Music, etc., there should be attached to the Director's Office certain experts in these subjects who will inspect the different schools periodically and help in improving the standards of teaching.

The Central Advisory Board of Education appointed a special committee to look into the important recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission on Secondary Education (1952) and to indicate their order of priority. The report of this Committee was the basis of two programmes implemented during the Second Five-Year Plan, viz., the conversion of selected secondary schools into multi-purpose schools and the replacement of the old secondary system by the new higher secondary system.

Board's Opinions on Physical Education

The Board adopted the following resolution at its Twelfth Meeting (1946) as per item XVIII in the proceedings:

"The Board then proceeded to consider the question of making physical education an examination subject in high schools. While the Board were in sympathy with the objective of the proposal that schools should take all possible care for the promotion of the physical welfare of children in their care, they were unable to accept the view that 'physical fitness' could be included as an examination subject. Apart from practical difficulties, the Board felt that their object of physical education would be defeated if the suggestion was accepted. Further, the Board were of the opinion that establishment of an expert Committee on Physical Education would at this stage not serve any useful purpose. The Board in the first instance would like to see what provision has been made in regard to the health of the school child, in the first Five-Year programmes of educational development."

It may be mentioned here that the Chairman of the Twelfth meeting, the Rt. Rev. G.D. Barne, read out the speech of the Hon'ble Sardar Sir Jogendra Singh. This speech contained the following:

"The Government of India have also accepted in principle the setting up of the following training institutions and details of the schemes are being worked out: One Training College for Men, One Training College for Women, One College for Physical Education, One Training

College for Domestic Science, and One or Two Training Colleges for Teachers in Technical High Schools."

At the opening of the session of the Board's Thirteenth Meeting (1947) the Hon'ble Mr. B.G. Kher, Prime Minister and Minister for Education, Bombay, in his welcome speech, said:

"I need hardly dilate here on the importance of physical education. You are all aware of its importance. The very first step which we took when we (the Congress Ministry) came to office in 1937 was to appoint a Physical Education Committee and to give effect to its recommendations, chief among which was the starting of an institution for physical training. This was started 8 years ago and I am happy to say that it has continued well and has had very enthusiastic response from the public. The Government of Bombay lately appointed another Physical Education Committee, which has just submitted its report. You all probably have been supplied already with copies of the said Report. You will no doubt visit the Institute for Physical Training at Khandivlee during your stay here."

In this very Meeting, the Board then proceeded to consider a resolution passed by the All India Physical Education Conference at Amravati in 1946. Mr. Justice W.R. Puranik, Chairman of the Working Committee of the Provincial National Council of Physical Education, was present by special invitation to explain the background of the resolution under consideration. The Board expressed their appreciation of the aims and objects of the Conference and approved generally of their recommendations in regard to the development of physical education in this country and stressed that non-official bodies like the proposed council should receive recognition and encouragement at the hands of the Central as well as provincial governments.

The Hon'ble Shri. Sampurnanand, Minister for Education, United Provinces, in his welcome speech at the Board's Fifteenth Meeting (1949) said:

"Another subject which has been engaging our serious attention is physical education. We have made physical training a compulsory subject from this year and our Council of Physical Culture is steadily widening its sphere of influence, through money grants and technical advice, over the general population both in urban and rural areas. We do not believe in dividing knowledge into water-tight compartments with labels like eastern and western attached to them. We are intending to work out, at our college of Physical Education which I hope you will find time to visit, a system of physical training combining the best Indian traditions with modern advances in scientific knowledge."

"Closely allied to physical training is the subject of Military training. The United Provinces Government first took up this question in 1938. We have formulated a scheme of compulsory military training applicable to all students in classes IX to XII. You know the details of the Government of India's Cadet Scheme. We feel that the scheme drawn up in the United Provinces is superior to the Government of India's Cadet Scheme, in many ways, although we cannot hope to equal them in equipment or training personnel. However, with great difficulty, we have prevailed upon them to allow us to work it in 11 districts, for the students of the intermediate classes. Six thousand nine hundred young men are under training. We propose to hold a rally of 2,500 of our selected trainees in Lucknow on January 21. The Hon'ble Sardar Baldev Singh, Defence Minister, has kindly consented to grace the function. I hope we shall be able to convince him of the soundness of our proposals and persuade him to allow it to be given a full and free trial, at least in this province."

In this very Meeting the Board took note of the Interim Report of the Committee on Physical Education and suggested that in preparing its final Report the Committee should keep the following two points in mind: (a) In allocation of expenditure between central and provincial governments for the implementation of the programme of physical education, the contribution of centre should be 50 per cent and not 90 per cent. (b) The co-operation of the Ministry of Defence should be secured for furthering the development of physical education in the country and full benefit be taken of the Physical Training Schools maintained at Poone and other centres by the said Ministry.

(4) The Board in its Nineteenth Meeting (1952) considered the report of its Committee on the Promotion of Youth Movement in India. It emphasised the need for opening annual training camps to train scout leaders including guides. It also stressed the need for starting olympic organizations for the promotion of athletic activities. The Board also recommended the opening of youth hostels and providing travel and other facilities for students and advised that special attention should be paid to the needs of the children leaving school at the age of 12 and suitable organisations set up for their educational and other needs.

(5) The Board in its Twentieth Meeting (1953) further recommended that the state government should promote hobbies and establish Scout and Guide organizations, Youth hostels etc., and stress the importance of athletics and of the N.C.C. in their schools.

(6) In the Twenty-First Meeting (1954), the Board considered a note on Student Indiscipline, prepared by the Secretary, Ministry of

Education. The Board recommended that: a) the central government should give loans on easy terms to state governments for improving facilities like (school and college) hostels and play grounds. The state governments should similarly float loans for the purpose; and b) Students in secondary schools and colleges should be given greater opportunities for participating in such co-curricular activities as the National Cadet Corps, Manual and Social Service, and scouting and guiding.

In the very meeting with the permission of the Chairman, Col. Virendra Singh of the Ministry of Defence explained to the Board the need for extending the facilities for Auxiliary Cadet Corps training at the University level. The Board expressed their sympathy with the institution of the Auxiliary Cadet Corps and requested the Ministry of Education to take an interest in the development of the Corps in consultation with the Ministry of Defence.

Board Calls For Assessment Of Schemes

The Board in its Twenty-fifth Meeting (1958) considered the Report on the Development of Physical Education, Sports and Games, Scouting and Guiding and National Discipline Scheme.

The Board examined the estimate of Rs. 70 lakhs for putting up the National College of Physical Education and suggested that in so far as the provision for building was concerned, it should be reviewed. If it was possible to effect any savings on that account, it would be desirable to do so.

The Board further noted that there were four types of organizations working in the educational institutions in the field of physical education, namely, Scouting, A.C.C., N.C.C., and National Discipline Scheme. There were also a large number of children who were not covered by any one of the above organizations. The Board felt that the time had come to assess the educational benefit in the light of the largest possible number of children under one or other scheme which was the cheapest and the soundest from the educational point of view. If, however, more than one scheme had to be introduced, it would be desirable to assess the cost and relative benefits of A.C.C. on the one hand and Scouting and Guiding on the other. Whether the expenditure on A.C.C. in schools was commensurate with the educational benefits was a point that needed close scrutiny.

The Board considered in the proceedings of its Twenty-Sixth Meeting (1959) the Reports from the Government of India and State Govern-

ments about the action taken on the recommendations which it had made in its last meeting. The Board noted with regret that no action had been taken on the recommendation that a proper assessment be made of the various schemes (A.C.C., N.C.C., Scout movement, N.D.S. etc.) with reference to their cost. The Chairman informed the Board, however, that the Ministry was already examining this question and expected to be able to report to the Board at its next meeting.

It was strongly recommended that some form of extra-curricular activity must be made available to all the students in all schools all over the country and that for this purpose a proper assessment of various schemes and activities was necessary so that maximum advantage may be secured out of the funds available.

The Board recommended that adequate steps, including provision of suitable incentives to attract promising students to different sports and to help them to cultivate them, should be taken at an early date.

Physical Education Builds Character And Prestige

Delivering the address to the members of the Central Advisory Board of Education who had come to attend the Board's Twenty-sixth Meeting (1959), the Chairman Dr. K.L. Shrimali said.

"It is a matter of regret that in our country, physical education has not so far been regarded as an integral and, indeed, an essential part of education at all the three levels. Games and Sports, wherever they exist, are generally looked upon as diversions, and quite often as marginal activities to the normal curriculum rather than as instruments for character-building, to which they contribute just as much as any system of academic studies. While we all recognise the value of games in the context of national prestige, we have done very little to develop sports in schools where foundations of future greatness are really laid. An Ad-hoc Committee which was set up recently to enquire into the causes of our backwardness in games and sports and to suggest remedial measures is expected to submit its report soon to which government will give due consideration. In order to arouse in the youth an enthusiasm for physical fitness, we have also launched a National Physical Efficiency Drive, with the introduction of graded national tests for both men and women. The National College of Physical Education which has been established at Gwalior is the first institution of its kind in India to impart a three-year degree course in physical education. It is expected that, in fullness of time, this college will supply enough trained personnel in this particular field and will become a centre for advanced study and research."

In the Inaugural Address of the Board's Twenty-seventh Meeting (1960), Dr. K.L. Shrimali, the Chairman of the Board, said:

"With our limited resources we have also taken various positive measures for providing healthy outlets for the youth. The Sports Council has been reorganized and grants have been given to the state governments for acquisition of playfields and purchase of sports equipment. The government will soon launch the National Physical Efficiency Drive to arouse the enthusiasm of people for higher standards of physical efficiency and achievement. A National Institute for Sports is proposed to be set up in the near future to produce coaches of outstanding ability to work at national and state levels. If these efforts are supplemented by the State governments and the community, I have no doubt that the youth of the country will improve physically and take a more active share in games and sports and be diverted from destructive and anti-social activities."

The address was followed by a general discussion. In the course of the address, Dr. (Mrs.) Seeta Parmanand suggested as a measure against student indiscipline the establishment of Children's Clubs where they could participate in interesting extra-curricular activities; while His Highness, the Maharaja of Patiala, made a fervent plea for making an adequate provision in the Third Five-Year Plan for outdoor activities in schools and colleges. The secret why the N.C.C. movement was so popular was, he said, that it provided adequate opportunities to young students for disciplined outdoor work.

The Board in its Thirtieth Meeting (1963) recommended expansion of the N.C.C. at the College. The Board welcomed the integrated programme of N.D.S. and physical education which incorporates the best features of the existing programme at the school level, and recommended that in-service training for this work should be carried out expeditiously. The Board further decided that suitable books should be prepared centrally for the integrated scheme.

The Board recommended that the N.D.S. instructors should be under the administrative control of the Head Masters of the schools in which they work.

The National Physical Efficiency Drive (NPED)

To make the country physical health and fitness-conscious and to arouse in the people, including the school population, enthusiasm, interest and desire to attain higher standards of physical efficiency and achievement, the scheme of National Physical Efficiency Drive was launched by

the Union Ministry of Education and Social Welfare in 1959-60. The State Governments were requested to take up implementation of the drive on a wider scale. An expenditure of over Rs.60,000 was incurred in 1960 on the preparation of 20,000 medals for the distribution to 3-star winners. On the basis of the experience gained in the year 1959-60, the scheme was continued with the following revised pattern:

- (a) Testing Centres to be set up in all educational institutions of the level of high/higher secondary schools and above as well as in recognised Gymnasias, Akhadas, Vyayamshalas, Sports-Clubs, Recreation-Centres, etc., having necessary amenities.
- (b) The practice of giving grants to State Governments for the establishment of testing centres at the rate of Rs.3,000 per centre was discontinued.
- (c) Tests to be held periodically as and when a certain number of persons wished to undertake them and in the beginning, efforts to be made to hold the tests at least four times a year at each testing centre.

The Central Advisory Board of Education at its 28th Meeting (1961) made the following recommendations in connection with the Scheme of National Physical Efficiency Drive.

- (a) The Central Government should continue to give Rs.300 per centre to enable the State Governments to establish a large number of centres to provide adequate facilities for the National Physical Efficiency Drive;
- (b) Special attention should be paid to encourage non-school going youth to undergo the National Physical Efficiency Tests in a larger number. For this purpose, it was recommended that some amount should be spent on publicising the scheme among the non-student youth; and
- (c) Steps should also be taken to popularise the scheme among women, both school-going and non-school going. Special facilities to trained women desirous of participating should also be made available through women's clubs or girls schools, etc.

The Drive is based on precise and carefully graded physical fitness tests which are carried out at the testing centres especially set up for the purpose all over the country. N.P.E. tests are conducted every year and open to everyone. For men there are two tests-batteries, one for seniors and another for juniors. These tests-batteries consist of different items,

arranged in groups from which a number of items has to be selected. The senior group is for those who are over 18 years and the junior group for those under 18. The same grouping applies to women also. Apart from this, there is no age restriction. Within the groups anyone can take part in these tests.

These tests are conducted in co-operation with the State Governments. The various items involved in tests-batteries are designed only to test the all-round ability of the individual.

On the basis of the achievement, the winners are awarded "One Star", "Two Stars" and "Three Stars" and certificates of merit. Since 1962 the scheme also provides for national awards which are given to persons who reveal proficiency of a very high order in the prescribed test items. The Drive has been becoming increasingly popular from year to year. Lakhs of student-youths have started participating in the tests of the Drive every year. During the year 1964-65, about one million persons participated in the Drive, of which over 300,000 were declared winners, and between 1962 and 1965, 32 persons have won the national awards.

The Ministry of Education and Social Welfare published "Norms for Physical Efficiency Tests for Boys and Girls" as well as "A Plan for National Physical Efficiency Drive" in 1956 and 1958 respectively. These two publications were harbingers of the NPED.

The National Physical Fitness Programme (NPFP)

In the beginning, the National Physical Fitness Programme (NPFP) was known as the Scheme of National Physical Efficiency Drive as the tests under this scheme were conducted each year throughout the country within a specified period. As stated above, the scheme consisted of certain tests-batteries for different age groups, separately for men and women. In the year 1972, the scheme was handed over to Lakshmi Bai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior, so that the college could implement the scheme more effectively with the necessary available enterprise. In 1979-80, it was re-named as the National Physical Fitness Programme.

The All-India Council of Sports

No organized effort at government level was made in the pre-independence period for improving the facilities necessary for raising the standard of sports in the country. The patronage extended by the ruling

princes and others also ended with the dissolution of the Princely order. The Union Government established the All-India Council of Sports in November, 1954.

In August, 1954, a meeting of the presidents of the various national sports federations and associations was held under the Chairmanship of Late Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, Union Minister of Education. The meeting passed a resolution recommending to the Government of India to establish a Sports Council. On the basis of this recommendation, the Government of India, in November, 1954, constituted the All-India Council of Sports to serve as a co-ordinating link between the national federations, national associations and the Central Government. The State Governments were also asked to form State Sports Councils and to get them affiliated to the All-India Council of Sports. These have since then been established and are known as State Sports Councils.

Under the advice of the All-India Council of Sports, policies and programmes for the promotion of sports and games began to be formulated in the country. This Council has been helpful in developing sports facilities such as indoor halls, stadia, playgrounds, swimming pools and the like in the country.

The Council has provided leadership in the sports field by suggesting model constitutions for National Sports Federations and State Sports Councils and by giving them guidance on various matters from time to time. Considerable improvements have been effected in the sports organisational set-up. Many of the sports organizations have been registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1860 and most of their office-bearers do not hold multiple office. The Council has granted recognition to about 28 National Sports Federations apart from the Indian Olympic Association, the Services Sports Control Board, the Railway Sports Control Board, the Posts and Telegraphs Sports Control Board, the All-India Deaf and Dumb Sports Association, the School Games Federation of India, the Inter-University Board of Sports of India, and the All-India Police Sports Control Board. This Council has further been instrumental in co-ordinating the activities of the National Sports Federations in the country and the Indian Olympic Association.

The function of the Council is to give advice and assistance to the National Sports Organizations in order to raise the standard of games and sports in the country. It recommends to the Government of India the amount of financial aid to be given to various National Sports Associations and Federations on the merit of their achievements in raising the standard of their respective games and sports in the country. All National Federa-

tions and Associations, irrespective of their membership of the Indian Olympic Association, are represented on the Council.

The Council soon after its inception devoted most of its attention to coaching camps, recommending financial grants for construction of stadia, for purchasing games and sports material, for sending teams in international competitions and for meeting expenses of foreign teams visiting India. The Council conducted 21 coaching camps which were attended by nearly 500 teachers and physical education directors nominated by the State Education Departments and the Universities.

In 1959 on the recommendation of the Ad Hoc Enquiry committee on Games and Sports, the All-India Council of Sports was reconstituted. It is now a much smaller body consisting of 15 members nominated by the Government of India.

The Council also recommends awards of distinction to be conferred by the Government of India on distinguished sportsmen and sportswomen in the country as a national honour. The Arjuna Award for sportsmen or sportswomen of the year represents the highest national honour in games and sports and was first instituted in 1961. These awards are presented by the President of India at a special ceremony at Rashtrapati Bhawan, Delhi.

In 1980, the All-India Council of Sports framed a Draft National Sports Policy for the first time in the country, with its aims and objectives as under:

The Government recognises the right of every citizen to participate in and enjoy games, sports, and recreational activities. The aims and objectives of the New Sports Policy are three-fold. The first is to inculcate sports and health consciousness among the masses for regular participation in games and sports; and to make the nation healthy and strong. The second is to raise the standards in games and sports and in the process earn a place of pride in international sports competitions. The third is to recognise the need to provide all the necessary facilities and infrastructure which are essential for creating sports consciousness and promotion of the standards of performance in games and sports.

The National Sports Policy further lays down that in order to achieve the aims and objectives, physical education and sports must be made a compulsory subject in all schools and colleges. At least two disciplines in sports must form the essential subject in these educational institutions.

The Society for National Institutes of Physical Education and Sports (SNIPES)

This society through its Board of Governors looks after the Lakshmibai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior and the Netaji Subhash National Institute of Sports, Patiala. On the Board of Governors about 17 members are nominated by the Government of India. Members of this high-powered Board are picked up from among Ministers, politicians, educationists, administrators and renowned sports personalities. It has an autonomous status. The following are the Chairmen of the Board of Governors:

| | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Shri Ashfaq Hussain | 5-11-56 to 31-12-57 |
| 2. Shri P.N. Kripal | 1-1-58 to 16-12-58 |
| 3. Gen. K.M. Kariappa | 17-12-58 to 16-10-68 |
| 4. Shri Ram Niwas Mirdha | 17-10-68 to 31-5-76 |
| 5. Shri V.C. Shukla | 1-6-76 to 19-4-77 |
| 6. Shri Sikandar Bakht | 20-4-77 to 29-6-78 |
| 7. Dr. Amrik Singh | 1-7-78 to 31-7-82 |
| 8. Shri V.C. Shukla | 1-8-82 onwards |

The Board, under the Chairmanship of such illustrious personalities, has provided very helpful guidance to the aforesaid two National Institutes, backed by all the authority of the Government.

The Standing Committee of the SNIPES Board has taken up the work of preparing norms for recognising institutions conducting professional physical education training courses for graduates and post-graduate teachers. It is hoped that due uniformity in the teacher training courses will be achieved by the recommendations of above-referred Committee of the SNIPES Board.

The Lakshmibai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior

The Central Government started this college at Gwalior in August 1957 with the object of providing well-qualified teachers of physical education and thereby raising the standard and status of physical education in the country.

The University Education Commission under the Chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan had recommended that degree courses in physical education discipline be started to train properly qualified teachers of physical education. The Central Advisory Board of Physical Education

and Recreation had emphasized the need for a National College. In pursuance of these recommendations, the Union Ministry of Education and Culture established this college on August 17, 1957, under the principalship of Mr. P.M. Joseph. Initially, the name of the College was Lakshmi-bai College of Physical Education and later on in 1974, the epithet "National" was added to it.

To start with, LNCPE was planned to provide the undergraduates detailed courses in physical education, health education and recreation, spanning over three years leading to a degree in physical education. It started in 1963, a 2-year post-graduate course leading to a master's degree for regular students and 3-year post-graduate vocational course for inservice teachers. Now-a-days it runs one-year M.Phil. course and a 2-year M.A./M.Sc. in sports. As there was no University in India which had a faculty of physical education as such, the LNCPE authorities desired to obtain a Charter from the Government to award its own degrees. However, the initial growth of the college was slow and the infrastructure not sufficiently advanced to permit this. The College, therefore, got affiliated first to the Vikram University at Ujjain which has the distinction of being the first University in India to recognize physical education as equivalent to any other subject for the award of degree and later to Jiwaji University at Gwalior as these Universities added the faculties of physical education with the principal of LNCPE as the Dean.

The management of the College, a co-educational institution, is vested in the Society for National Institutes of Physical Education and Sports (SNIPES) through its Board of Governors nominated by the Government of India. The Board has provided very helpful guidance, backed by all the authority of the Government, to the principal and has allowed complete and unfettered freedom to him to conduct the affairs of the College. This has been a great factor in the rapid and spectacular advance made by the College.

It is now an established autonomous institute of higher learning and research. Students from several foreign countries are now a regular feature. The enrolment of students has increased from 30 students in 1957 to 500 in 1976. In the year 1965, the College had an annual intake capacity of 300 for the degree course and 50 for the Master's degree course.

Besides the training of quality teachers and providing leadership in the areas of curriculum development and research, this college has now been entrusted with a number of Central Government Schemes by the Union Ministry of Education and Culture on an agency basis. For example, in the year 1972, the scheme of National Physical Efficiency Drive (NPED)

was handed over to the LNCPE so that the College could implement the scheme more effectively with the necessary available expertise.

The College celebrated its Silver Jubilee in 1981-82 by successfully organizing many programmes and the National Conference on physical education with the general theme, entitled "Physical Education in Developing Countries" in the next 25 years, as per calendar mentioned under.

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| September 19 - 21 | : Silver Jubilee Basketball Tournament (Men & Women) |
| November 5 - 9 | : U.G.C. Seminar on "Physical Fitness of University Youth." |
| November 16 | : College Convocation |
| November 20 - 22 | : All-India Seminar on "Development of Games and Sports for the Handicapped." |
| November 25 - 28 | : Silver Jubilee Volleyball Tournament (Men and Women). |
| November 27 - 29 | : All-India Seminar for Directors of Education and Directors of Sports and Youth Welfare on "Problems of Physical Education and Sports for School Going and non-School Going Youth." |
| 1982 | |
| January 25 - 26 | : Play Festival for Children of Greater Gwalior. |
| February 1st week | : National Award Competition for NPFEP. |
| February 18 - 20 | : A National Conference for Principals of post-Graduate Colleges of Physical Education in India and Members of the National Association of University Teachers and Indian Association of Teachers of Health, Physical Education and Recreation. Leaders of Physical Education from some Afro-Asian countries are also expected to attend the Conference. |
| August 17 | : Silver Jubilee Function and Laying of the Foundation stone for Research Block. |

The Netaji Subhash National Institute of Sports, Patiala

On the basis of the Ad Hoc Committee's recommendation, the All-India Council of Sports advised the Government of India to establish a National Institute of Sports. The Central Government, therefore, proposed to start this institute at Patiala in 1958 with the object of providing well-qualified coaches in different sports. However, it started actual functioning from March, 1961, and was finally inaugurated on 7th May, 1961 by Dr. K.L. Shrimali, Union Minister of Education.

The establishment of the National Institute of Sports by the Union Government at Patiala in 1961 for producing and training high calibre coaches in all sports and games marks a landmark in the sports field. In the initial years foreign coaches were employed but now Indian coaches are employed by the Institute for various games and sports.

The Institute was primarily meant for training good coaches in all popular games and sports so that they might be of use in educational institutions, private clubs, sports associations and even in colleges of physical education. In the beginning, the Institute conducted ad hoc courses of six months' duration. From March 1961 to February 1963, three courses were conducted. Since July 1963, the Institute has conducted two courses: one is a regular course of three years' duration in athletics and gymnastics and another a one-year course for athletics, football, hockey, cricket, tennis, volleyball, badminton, wrestling and swimming. Now-a-days it conducts two branches, one in Delhi and the other at Bangalore. At the south centre at Bangalore, more emphasis is laid on Kabaddi and Khokho, the indigenous team games. It is also meant to serve as a centre for any information on games and sports.

The Institute is also responsible for the running of the National Coaching Scheme aimed at making the States and Union Territories interested in the need for coaching promising teachers and students. The Institute ordinarily guarantees the salary of half the number of coaches employed at each of the centres, coming under the jurisdiction of the National Coaching Scheme, and the rest of the expenditure is required to be met by the State Government concerned.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION DURING POST-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

Independence and Physical Education in India

Physical education is accepted as an essential and integral part of education all over the world, because it is instrumental in achieving educational objectives, besides contributing to physical development and fitness of the youth, development of healthy attitudes and providing zeal to life. Carry over value of physical education and sports participation is also recognised.

Appointments of Commissions and Committees

Although the importance of physical education had been accepted in India in the pre-independence era, little had been done to incorporate it as a part of general education. After the attainment of independence, the Government of India have begun to show keen interest in the promotion of physical education in the country. The Government of India have appointed many important commissions and committees to reform physical education to meet the changing needs of the country. In pursuance of the recommendations of these commissions and committees, physical education has come to be regarded as an essential part of education at all levels of educational system in India. As a result, considerable importance has been given to varied programmes and schemes of physical education in the total pattern of Indian education.

Establishment of CABPER and AICS

As the first step, the Government of India set up the "Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation" in 1950, which later published, "A National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation" and launched a number of programmes like "Auxiliary Cadet Corps" and "National Discipline Scheme". Besides, the Government of India established in 1954 the "All-India Council of Sports". The "Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation" and "All-India Council of Sports" were established to advise Government on all matters pertaining to the promotion of physical education and sports among the school-going and non-school going youth in the country. Subsequently the "Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation" was abolished.

Establishment of National Institutes

Various steps were taken by Government to frame syllabi in physical education for the training of teachers and for educational institutions

and to organise effectively the syllabi in all types of educational institutions in the country. Government also established the Lakshmibai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior and the National Institute of Sports, Patiala to develop high level leadership in both the areas, namely, physical education and sports. It must be noted here that on the basis of the ad hoc Committee's recommendation, the All-India Council of Sports advised the Government of India to establish a National Institute of Sports; and the Government of India, therefore, established it at Patiala.

Schemes and Programmes of Physical Education and Sports

The introduction of the National Physical Efficiency Drive, strengthening of Colleges of Physical Education in the country, encouraging State Sports Councils and other agencies to develop playfields, stadia, swimming pools and the like are some of the important steps taken by Government which proved congenial to the promotion of physical education and sports in the country.

The Union Government has recently taken an important step in the field of physical education by launching an Integrated Programme of Physical Education, named, "National Fitness Corps", for all the middle, high and higher secondary schools from the academic session 1965-66 in replacement of the various existing programmes of physical education. This new programme has combined in it the best features of the existing programmes and has become one of the compulsory curricular activities for all school students from standard V/VI onwards with a weekly allotment of 2-3 periods per class. In 1980, the All-India Council of Sports has framed a "Draft National Sports Policy" for the first time in the country. This Draft lays down that physical education and sports must be made compulsory subjects in all schools and colleges.

After independence, physical education and sports have found a place in National Programme of Education in India. But it must be remembered that in India, education, including physical education, is mainly a concern of the State Governments. Hence, there is no uniformity in the development of physical education.

Present Status of Physical Education

The nature of development of physical education and sports is as follows:

"Physical Education has formed an integral part of the school and college activities. Arrangements for games, sports, mass drills, etc., have existed in almost all secondary schools and colleges. Most of these institutions have physical education teachers and training instructors on their staff for such activities. Annual inter-school, inter-college and inter-university tournaments have been conducted. Moreover, various sports organizations in the States also have organised sports meets. Shortage of trained physical education teachers and instructors, and paucity of playing grounds particularly in rural areas, however, have continued to hinder progress in the field."

Development of Physical Education in Bombay-Cum-Maharashtra State

(a) Committees on Physical Education

(1) *Swami Kuvalayanand Committee (1952)*: Government of Bombay State appointed the Third Special Committee to report on (1) the conversion of the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, into a National College for Physical Education and Recreation, (2) the organization of research in physical education, and (3) the problem of recreation in general and training in leadership in particular. It was observed that these recommendations were never materialized.

(2) *Joseph Physical Education Committee (1968-69)*: After independence, physical education was made compulsory in schools, syllabi of physical education were worked out, professional teacher training colleges were established, supervisors were appointed and so on. Still physical education did not make the impact that was expected. School authorities were apathetic. People refused to become trained teachers because of unattractive salary, low status and low chances of promotions. It was perhaps in this setting that the Government of Maharashtra felt the need to review the whole situation.

The Government of Maharashtra accordingly appointed the Joseph Physical Education Committee by a resolution dated 20th April 1968 to suggest ways and means to improve the condition of physical education in Maharashtra State and to revive and popularise Akhadas and Vyayam Shalas for the benefit of rural population.

The Committee recommended the following:

- (1) To derecognize the old major physical education Diploma and in its place adopt Bi-focal Pattern at Teacher Training Institutions in the State;

- (2) To introduce One Year Higher Diploma in Education (H.D.Ed.) course for graduates and Two Year Diploma in Education (D.Ed.) Course for Xth School-Leaving-Certificate-holders as intermediate steps to Bi-focal Degree and Diploma courses in Education to be called as B.Ed. (Physical Education) and D.Ed. (Physical Education) respectively;
- (3) To shift the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli to any suitable place like Poona (in the Deccan College Campus), Aurangabad or Kolhapur; and affiliate this Institute to the University concerned;
- (4) To organize a special one-and-a-half-months' short-term course for old Diploma in Physical Education (D.P.Ed.) holders for getting their derecognized Diplomas recognized by making them to undergo a course in any academic subject of their choice;
- (5) The teacher-students ratio should be 1 : 250.

(b) State Board of Physical Education

This Board played a very important role in the development of physical education in the Bombay State since 1938 and served as a valuable link between official and non-official thought on the subject. In 1953, however, it was abolished in consequence of the decision of Government of Bombay to abolish all Advisory Boards as a measure of economy.

(c) Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli

As a result of the Joseph Committee (1968-69) recommendation, this Institute began to conduct a bifocal course of one year and those who passed it received the Higher Diploma in Education (H.D.Ed.). Later this Institute began to offer Bachelor of Education (Physical Education) course for graduates of recognized universities, and was affiliated to the Bombay University. It was closed in 1983 and is being converted into a State Institute of Physical Education.

(d) Non-Official Teacher Training Courses in Physical Education

Due to the Joseph Committee (1968-69) recommendation, emphasis shifted from major physical education courses to bifocal courses. All the private institutions which were conducting teacher training courses in

physical education were ordered by Government to discontinue both the one-year Certificate Courses for matriculates and one-year Diploma Courses for graduates, and were allowed to conduct, if at all they wished, Diploma in Education (D.Ed.) and Higher Diploma in Education (H.D.Ed.) respectively.

The nature of D.Ed. courses has undergone change and at present these courses have lost the soul from physical education point of view. Physical education has been thrown in the background. H.D.Ed. courses, too, have been abolished totally in 1983. Since the public have begun to recognise the value of University degrees more than that of Government diplomas, private bodies now-a-days are allowed to run physical education degree courses of one year's duration for graduates if they are ready to accept the bifocal nature. Besides, all these courses are being affiliated to the neighbouring Universities and the concerned universities are awarding degrees to those who pass their examinations.

(e) Inspectorate for Physical Education

As a part of the Departmental reorganization undertaken in 1953, the post of the State Inspector for Physical Education was downgraded from Class I to Class II and the number of A.D.E.I.s. for P.E. was reduced from 42 to 40. Later the Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare has substituted the Inspectorate for Physical Education. The Directorate administers and organizes its programmes through the District Sports Officers.

(f) Physical Education — An Examination Subject in Secondary Schools

In 1949-50, a detailed scheme, giving the prescribed tests in physical education, the method of marking, the standard for passing, etc., was drawn up. A special booklet on the scheme was prepared and circulated to all secondary schools for guidance. The scheme was adopted universally and had yielded good results.

Since the establishment of the Maharashtra State Board of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education, the scheme of examination of physical education is maintained through high schools and the Board issues School Leaving Certificate along with the mention on it of the grade the concerned student has achieved in the school physical education examination.

(g) Camping

In 1949-50, Government of Bombay decided to encourage camping among school pupils because it has been accepted as a very useful and valuable educational activity. A Special Officer for Holiday Camps was also appointed although the post had to be retrenched a little later.

A sum of Rs. 20,000 was annually earmarked for the purpose. Twelve camps for teachers were to be organised every year—six for secondary teachers and six for primary teachers, and a contingent expenditure of Rs.1,100 was sanctioned for each camp. Similarly, two camps—one for boys and one for girls—were to be organized annually in each district and a contingent expenditure of Rs.100 was sanctioned for each camp.

The Department had developed three permanent camping sites at Mahabaleshwar, Bhore and Karla. At present, these sites are looked after by the Maharashtra State Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare.

(h) Propaganda

Government had assisted in the organization of the Bombay State Physical Education Conferences, held in Bombay in 1949, in Ahmedabad in 1950-51, in Dharwar in 1954-55, and in Bombay in 1961.

Government has prepared a 16 mm film on "Physical Education in the State of Bombay" and has also stocked a number of films and posters on physical education. These are lent to exhibitions whenever they are held.

Such propaganda schemes are being continued by the Maharashtra State Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare.

(i) The State Sports' Festival

Since 1954-55 Government has been organizing a State Sports Festival with the primary object of arousing enthusiasm and love for sports among the youth of the State, in particular and the country, in general. For this purpose a Special Committee has been set up under the chairmanship of the Chief Minister and it has its agencies in each district and taluka of the State. The Sports Festival itself is held in three stages: inter-village in taluka, inter-taluka in district and inter-district in State. The administration and organization of these Sports festivals are carried out with the help of the state level sports associations of the concerned sports,

and other experts and interested personalities in the state. The aforesaid special committee is assisted by the Maharashtra State Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare and State Sports Council.

(i) 'Chhatrapati' State Awards to Sports Persons

Chhatrapati Award was instituted by the Government of Maharashtra in 1969. The awards are distributed at the hands of the Governor of Maharashtra at a special function held at a suitable place in Maharashtra.

The Planning Commission's Five-Year Plans and Physical Education

Free India, carved out by the partitioning of the sub-continent, was born with many stresses and strains unprecedented in the history of mankind. After the restoration of some normalcy, the Planning Commission of India launched upon planned development through successive Five-Year Plans, the first beginning in 1950-51. In the scheme of this overall planned development, educational development was bound to lie at the very base, because education is essentially concerned with the training and development of human resources. Physical education being universally agreed upon as an integral part of general education, suitable provisions were made in the Five-Year Plans for the development of Sports and Games.

(a) First Five-Year Plan

Although the First Plan was spoken of as a Five-Year Plan, it was, in fact, only a Three-Year Plan, because the Plan was accepted by Parliament only towards the end of the year 1952-53. The operative years under the Plan had, therefore, been only the three years from 1953-54.

National well-being requires that there should be a balanced development of the entire country without any marked disparity between different regions. Judged by this standard, the First Plan had not proved entirely successful because there was a certain lack of coordination between the Central and the State plans. This lack of coordination was aggravated because of the demand that the States should find matching funds in order to earn the Central quota. The result was that advanced and prosperous states secured a much greater proportion of central assistance, while underdeveloped states were unable to take full advantage of the schemes.

(b) Second Five-Year Plan

The programmes implemented in the Second Five-Year Plan were: the conversion of selected secondary schools into multipurpose schools and the replacement of the old secondary system by the new higher secondary system. During the Second Five-Year Plan, funds were placed at the disposal of the State Governments for giving financial assistance to educational institutions for the acquisition of playing fields and for the purchase of sports equipment.

The Second Five-Year Plan is important in the history of physical education in India, because under it, in 1957, the Lakshmibai College of Physical Education was established at Gwalior with Mr. P.M. Joseph as Principal. This was the National Degree College of Physical Education of its kind in the country. Since the year 1957 marked the hundredth anniversary of the national uprising of 1857, the new college bears the name of Lakshmibai as a mark of tribute to the great Rani of Jhansi who died valiantly in the national revolt against British rule in Gwalior in 1857.

Among other significant developments in the field of physical education, sports and youth welfare during the Second Five-Year Plan, reference may be made to the setting up of Bal Bhavans to cater to the recreational needs of the children, the launching of the National Physical Efficiency Drive (N.P.E.D.) on the basis of carefully graded physical tests, and the organization of youth camps in rural areas as part of the community development programme. Towards the end of the Second Plan the National Institute of Sports was set up at Patiala for training high-grade coaches in different games and sports. In the sphere of youth activities, grants were given for the construction of stadia, swimming pools, open-air-theatres, etc. Steps were also taken for the promotion of activities of the National Cadet Corps (N.C.C.), Auxiliary Cadet Corps (A.C.C.), Bharat Scouts and Guides, and the National Discipline Scheme (N.D.S.).

(c) Third Five-Year Plan

During the Third Five-Year Plan, the State Governments were requested to make provision for physical education in their own plans. The then Union Education Minister had addressed all the Chief Ministers of States about the imperative need for more and more playgrounds and for the preservation of existing playgrounds and that they were not converted into residential colonies.

The Second and Third Five-Year Plans are noteworthy in the field of physical education since Mr. Jagannathrao K. Bhonsale had the

National Discipline Scheme incorporated in the Plans. All the programmes implemented in the Second Plan were kept alive. The National Institute of Sports, Patiala, was developed purposefully so as to provide more stimulation for all the major games and sports. With the help of coaches trained at the National Institute of Sports, Patiala, the National Coaching Scheme was introduced for promoting widespread coaching facilities so as to raise the standard of games and sports. The National Physical Efficiency Drive (NPED) was further intensified so as to have greater impact on all, particularly youth. Besides, the National Children's Museum was proposed to be established as a complement to the Bal Bhavan.

Sixth Five-Year Plan

Before the completion of the Fifth Plan (1974-79), the Sixth Plan was prepared in 1977 under Janata Government for the years 1978-83. This Sixth Plan provided for the continuation of the ongoing programmes in the fields of physical education, games and sports, language development, scholarships, and art and culture.

National Coaching Schemes of Sports

(a) Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme

In September, 1953, the Government of India introduced the Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme for Games and Sports with the object of training good athletes and sportsmen. A sum of Rs.3,81,575 was incurred on this scheme under which 79 coaches were working during the year 1960-61. This sports scheme received wide publicity because of the Late Rajkumari Amrit Kaur who was the Minister for Health in the Government of India and once a good tennis player herself. It soon became popular because famous players like Major Dhyan Chand, A.G. Ram Singh and others were available as coaches. Foreign coaches were also appointed on a contract basis, including Dr. Otto Peltzer of Germany, who conducted a number of coaching camps and delivered a number of lectures on coaching. The coaches appointed in the scheme toured all over the country and gave short-term training to students and teachers of colleges and schools.

The Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme ceased to function on 1st October, 1961. It has been merged in the National Institute of Sports, Patiala, as a separate coaching wing with its Board of Directors. All full-time coaches of the Rajkumari scheme have been transferred to the Institute. The part-time coaches who completed ad hoc courses have been absorbed as full-time coaches.

(b) Sports Council Coaching Scheme

The All-India Council of Sports arranged short coaching camps of about a fortnight or so at various important centres which were mainly attended by physical education teachers and other teachers deputed by State governments or the universities.

(c) Federations' Coaching Scheme

The National Federations and Associations received financial grants to conduct their own coaching camps, giving short courses at various levels.

But the results of these coaching schemes were small when measured by international standards, and so it was decided that all coaching schemes should be merged into one National Coaching Scheme and the training of good coaches as a preliminary requisite should receive top priority. For this purpose, the primary need was the establishment of a Central Coaching Institute. Expert opinion was in favour of a three-year training course with emphasis on specialisation. Finally, the scheme for the establishment of the National Sports Institute at Patiala was approved by the Government of India.

Professional Training of Teachers in Physical Education

Prior to August 1957, there were several institutions of physical education in the country which ran short courses of a year's duration granting diplomas and certificates in Physical Education. The educational institutions in the country employed these teachers reluctantly and provided scant facilities to them to pursue any worthwhile programme of physical education and sports. The work done by these teachers was not appreciated because of the lower level of their professional training compared to that of other teachers. This state of affairs could no longer be tolerated in a resurgent nation like ours which was then in the first few years of its independence. The Government of India recognized the need for an integrated programme of physical education and sports to raise the level of physical fitness and health in the country. Toward this end it was necessary that institutions be started which would train physical directors and physical education teachers with a sound, indepth knowledge of and with sufficient personal physical achievement in various activities to be able to attract the youth to join in the contemplated integrated national programme of physical education for fitness and health. It was also necessary to have a training which would be on par with other teachers' training programmes with equal academic recognition, prestige and pay.

Hence the establishment of the Lakshmibai College of Physical Education at Gwalior in 1957 by the Union Government has marked by far the most important step in this field. In 1957, the Lakshmibai College of Physical Education, Gwalior, was the first and only institution of its kind in the country.

With the introduction of compulsory physical education in the year 1965 in all middle, high and higher secondary schools under the integrated programme named "National Fitness Corps", specially trained physical education teachers became a must for all such schools.

In 1949-50, the number of physical education training colleges offering diploma courses was only 5 and that of training institutions offering certificate courses was about 20. In 1958-59, these figures increased to 15 and 35 respectively. During the year 1960-61, 20 colleges and 41 institutes provided facilities for training of physical education teachers in the country. Refresher and short-term training courses were also organized in some of the States for training physical education teachers. The scheme of strengthening of physical education training institutions was intended to improve physical education in these training institutions by payment of non-recurring grants for development of playgrounds, purchase of library books and/or equipment, construction of gymnasias, hostels, administrative blocks, etc. The assessment of needs of these institutions was completed by all Regional Visiting Committees appointed for the purpose and the implementation of these recommendations was taken up. Grants totalling to Rs. 2,46,480 were sanctioned to 13 institutions during 1960-61.

The directory of Institutions of Physical Education in India, prepared by the Lakshmibai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior, as desired by the Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, New Delhi, and published by it in 1980, shows that such institutions total to 93.

Physical Education and Sports for Non-School going Youths

Since Independence considerable importance has been given to the physical education and sport programmes in the pattern of education but the unfortunate fact remains that these programmes continue to receive a low priority. Moreover, a large section of youth population in the country comprising non-student youth remains completely unattended. The result is that not only education of youth remains unbalanced and their development lopsided but also the programmes of physical education

and sports have failed to become a part of national life and consequently, our achievement at the international level is far from impressive. The problem of physical education and sports for the youth who had completed their education, or who had dropped out at any stage of education or who never had a chance of attending any educational institution needs examination.

Seminars on Physical Education (1958)

The Union Ministry of Education arranged two Seminars on Physical Education in 1958.

(1) The All-India Seminar for Principals of Colleges of Physical Education

The Seminar for Principals was held at Madras in February, 1958. Some of its most important recommendations are given below:

- (i) There should be medical examination of all school children;
- (ii) There should be more Degree Colleges of Physical Education in the country, at least one in each zone; and
- (iii) There should be a National Research Council of Physical Education preferably at Delhi which should undertake research projects for practical applications.

(2) The All-India Seminar on Physical Education for State Inspectors and University Directors

The All-India Seminar for State Inspectors for Physical Education and University Directors of Physical Education was organised from 16th to 30th May, 1958, at Mahabaleshwar, under the directorship of Shri D.G. Wakharkar, by the Union Ministry of Education and was the second of its kind, the first being held for the Principals of Physical Education institutions, at Madras, in February, 1958.

Such seminars were expected to bring together the workers in the field of physical education, with a view to studying their problems intensively and sharing the views and experiences at a stage, when physical education was undergoing changes in contents and methods and when there was a great need for the workers in the field to understand these modern ideas and trends.

The object of the seminar, as suggested by the Union Ministry of Education, was to discuss the present system of inspection and supervision of physical education and also the development of physical education at college/university level in the context of the National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation prepared by the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation; and to discuss the development of physical education activities in the community as a whole.

Major Recommendations

1. Physical Education at the School Level

- (1) Physical education should be a curricular subject in the schools at all levels and should be on par with the subjects.
- (2) The programme of physical education and recreation should cater to the needs, interests and capacities of the pupils and should have "carry over" value. It should promote normal growth and development, maintenance of health, acquisition of skills and desirable social attitude and behaviour.
- (3) Leadership in the field of physical education should consist of
(a) qualified staff, (b) specialist coaches, and (c) student leaders.
- (4) Any of the following qualifications should be considered as an approved qualification for a person to work as a physical education teacher in a secondary school:

(a) A Degree in Physical Education; (b) A University Degree with a Diploma in Physical Education; (c) A pass in Intermediate or its equivalent with a Certificate in Physical Education; (d) A pass in Matric or S.S.L.C. or S.S.C. or S.F. Examination with a Certificate in Physical Education.
- (5) In primary schools, classroom teachers should teach physical education.
- (6) Periodical refresher courses should be organised for in-service physical education teachers.
- (7) Special coaching camps should be conducted for school physical education teachers at Government cost.

- (8) Playgrounds should be provided by schools as laid down in the National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation. Schools may, however, have playgrounds with the following minimum limits:

| Category | Boys | Girls |
|---------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| (a) High Schools | 5 acres | 3 acres |
| (b) Middle Schools | 3 acres | 2 acres |
| (c) Primary Schools | $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 acre | $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 acre |

- (9) Schools having excess open space may be required to permit the use of such open space by the neighbouring schools.
- (10) Each school should have an indoor gymnasium with the dimensions of $60 \times 15'$.
- (11) Schools should provide daily one period for physical education in the time table.
- (12) The syllabus given in the National Plan of Physical Education and Recreation should be followed in all schools with suitable modifications wherever necessary.
- (13) Medical inspection should be compulsory for all pupils.

2. Physical Education in the Universities

- (1) In order to plan and promote physical education, a Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation should be created in each university.
- (2) The University Grants Commission be requested to make adequate grants to the Universities for the establishment of the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation.
- (3) Adequate provision for the medical inspection and follow-up work of college students should be made by appointing a special medical officer at each university.
- (4) The universities should include compulsory and optional physical education activities. The N.C.C. should not be substituted for the physical education programme.
- (5) People should be educated in the worthy use of leisure. This should be achieved only through publicity of the right kind, i.e., press, films, film-strips, exhibitions, demonstrations, conferences, lectures, publications, etc.

3. Supervision of Health, Physical Education and Recreation in Schools

The term "Inspection" should be replaced by "Supervision". The aim of supervision should be to help the teachers of physical education in their work. In order to make supervision serve its purpose fully, the following staff may be provided in each State:

- (i) Dy. Director of Education for Physical Education and Recreation;
- (ii) Two State Physical Education Officers for men's branch and women's branch separately;
- (iii) Regional or Divisional Physical Education Officers (Men's and Women's branches separately), each in charge of a unit of about four District Physical Educational Officers;
- (iv) District Physical Education Officers (Men's and Women's branches separately), each in charge of about 50 high schools.

4. Functions of the Supervisory Staff

- (1) Deputy Director of Education for Physical Education and Recreation should be an administrative officer for physical education and Recreation. He should co-ordinate various allied activities in the State.
- (2) State Officers for Physical Education should be responsible for the supervision of physical education in schools, training colleges and institutions of physical education in the State, assisting the Deputy Director of Physical Education in the formulation of various plans and schemes and to submit their own plans. In addition, they should organise coaching camps, refresher courses, youth festivals and school rallies. Finally, they should co-ordinate the work of the Divisional and the District Staff of Physical Education.
- (3) Divisional or Regional Officers for Physical Education should have the same duties as the State Officers, in relation to their region or division.
- (4) District Physical Education Officers should be responsible for the supervision of 50 High Schools and visits to 50 Primary and/or Middle Schools inclusive of co-education institutions.

5. Recreation Facilities to Public

- (1) Municipal Corporations should have recreational sections where trained organizers should be appointed.
- (2) A special tax should be included in the Budget for the provision of recreational facilities to the public.

The Ad-hoc Enquiry Committee on Games and Sports (1958-59)

There was much criticism in the press and among public of the poor performance of Indian teams in international competitions and the general decline of sports in the country. Indian Athletes had not been able to secure even the 7th or 8th position in Olympic competitions. India's position was second in Asian Games held in Delhi in 1951, fourth in Manila in 1954 and seventh in Tokyo in 1958. The Government of India, therefore, appointed an Ad Hoc Committee in 1958 under the chairmanship of the Maharaja of Patiala to investigate the persistence of low standards in sports in India and the performance of the Indian teams in international contests, such as Olympics and Asian Games, and to recommend measures for improvement. Its terms of reference were to enquire into the reasons for the poor performance of Indian competitors in international contests; to suggest measures to arrest the gradual decline in the level of performance; and to recommend steps for the improvement of standards.

Dr. K.L. Shrimali, Union Minister of Education, in his inaugural address to the Committee on 7th July 1958, referred to the poor standards of Indian competitors in all games and sports. The Ad Hoc Enquiry Committee submitted its report in 1959 subject to Minutes of Dissent by Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Shri Jaipal Singh and Shri Moinul Haq.

Major Recommendations

1. More facilities and better opportunities for training and competition should be provided and greater administrative efficiency achieved.
2. Greater facilities should be provided in educational institutions in the form of equipment, playgrounds and funds.
3. Incentives in the form of credit for achievements in sports and games should be provided.

4. Health, power of endurance, physical well-being of young people should be developed by improvement in nutrition.

5. The term of the office-bearers in a National Federation or Association should be limited to three years with option for re-election for another term of three years.

6. No office-bearer in one National Federation/Association should simultaneously hold office in any other National Federation/Association.

7. The All-India Council of Sports should be reconstituted and it should consist of 11 to 15 members including a Chairman, nominated by the Government of India.

8. There should be a Central Plan of Coaching. The importance of physical education teachers should not be under-estimated. There are 31 institutions in the country which are yearly training thousands of teachers of physical education. They can be utilized in carrying out the Central Plan of Coaching. Planned coaching at all stages is essential. There is a vast talent potential in the country which should be exploited by intensive and planned coaching. The Colleges of Physical Education should re-orientate their training programmes and should pay more attention to games and sports.

9. A beginning should be made immediately with the establishment of a Central Training Institute to provide first class coaches in different sports and games.

10. National Federations/Associations should appoint their selection committees, as far as possible, on a permanent basis and every selection committee may be constituted for a period of two years.

11. National Federations/Associations should choose as Managers the right type of persons for the performance of their difficult and onerous task.

12. Sports and games should be organised in rural areas through Vyayamshalas, Vyayam Mandals, Akhadas, etc., and in co-operation with the Community Projects. Sports festivals should be organised and sports events encouraged on the occasion of fairs. Indigenous sports like Kabaddi and indigenous style of wrestling should be encouraged.

13. If schools and colleges and universities have to play their part in the development of sports and games in the country, they must have the

minimum requirements in respect of playgrounds and equipment. The following standards have been recommended:

| | |
|--|------------------------------|
| A College (with a student population of 1000 to 1500) | : 10 acres for playground |
| A High School (with a student population of 500 to 1000) | : 5.6 acres |
| A Middle School (with a student population of 200 to 500) | : 3.5 acres |
| A Primary School | : 1 acre |

14. Where separate playgrounds cannot be made available for each educational institution, a common pool for a group of institutions should be created.

15. Standard equipment should be manufactured in the country so as to be available at cheap rates to all and facilities for its manufacture should be provided.

16. For the development of sports and games in the country it is essential that umpiring and refereeing should be of a high order.

17. The rules on amateurism laid down by the International Federations and the International Olympic Committee should be strictly followed in the country.

18. Utility-type stadia should be constructed on a *shramadan* basis; if this is not possible, the ground should at least be enclosed.

The Kunzru Committee (1958-59)

The Kunzru Committee is also known as the Committee for co-ordination and Integration of Schemes Operating in the Field of Physical Education, Recreation and Youth Welfare.

It was appointed by the Government of India in 1958-59. It recommended guidelines for coordinating and integrating various schemes relating to physical education and youth development. It submitted its report in 1964.

It may not be out of place to mention here that Pt. H.N. Kunzru was thoroughly acquainted with the developments in the field of physical

education and sports over a period of more than 20 years. He was instrumental to replace U.T.C. by N.C.C. and A.C.C. He was the chairman of National Cadet Corps Committee (1946) which launched the N.C.C. Schemes in 1948. The culmination of the recommendations of the Kunzru Committee (1958) took place in the formation of National Fitness Corps in 1965.

The School Health Committee (1960)

The School Health Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Shrimati Renuka Ray by the Government of India in February 1960 to assess the present standard of health and nutrition of school children and suggest ways and means of improving them.

Terms of Reference

(a) To examine the present position of school health programme in the country in all its aspects (excluding physical education, games and sports), e.g., prevention of diseases, medical care and follow-up service, nutrition, health, education, healthy environment, etc., of the students at all stages of education and to suggest: (i) further survey of studies if required; and (ii) how the work of various agencies such as medical, social and welfare associations can be coordinated to assist in the promotion of health of school children.

(b) To examine studies and survey so far made to assess the nutritional standard of school children and to indicate: (i) further survey or studies needed in any specific areas; and (ii) to give concrete suggestions to institute appropriate measures to improve standards of nutrition among school children recommending, inter alia, ways and means for financing and organising such a programme.

(c) To examine and recommend the possibility of entrusting Primary Health Centres and other organisations for conducting a comprehensive and realistic school health programme in association with the local education administration. The recommendations should include measures to develop an effective school medical service suitable to the country.

(d) To examine the present facilities available for promoting nutritional standards of pre-school children and to suggest practical measures to improve the present position.

Scheme For Compulsory Physical Education In Schools (1962)

The border conflicts in the NEFA sector on 20th October, 1962 had forced the Government of India to give serious consideration to a scheme of compulsory physical education in schools. Hitherto, it was the policy of the Government as well as the general tendency of the people to rely on the strength of Indian Army in all matters of Defence. But the aforesaid border events had shown that the second and the third lines of defence must always be replenished by the recruitment from the general public. For this reason a New Integrated Scheme of Compulsory Physical Education was to be put into effect from July 1963. The Planning Commission had made provision for Rs. six crores and forty lakhs for the implementation of the New Scheme to cover all students from class VI to Class XI. Five periods of not less than 45 minutes each were to be devoted to physical training. However, the scheme failed to come into force in its true sense of the spirit.

Developments by the Union Government in Field Allied to Physical Education

(a) Construction of Stadia

The first stadium was built in Patiala, but there are now wellknown Stadiums at Delhi (the National Stadium), Bombay (Brabourne, Vallabh-bhai and Wankhede Stadiums), Madras (Corporation Stadium), Calcutta (Eden Gardens and Ranji Stadium), Hyderabad (New Stadium and Police Stadium), Kanpur (Green Park Stadium), Jamshedpur (Keenan Stadium), Jabalpur (Wright Stadium), Bangalore (Kanteerva Stadium), and others at Cuttack, Meerut, Lucknow, Ranchi and Khagoul etc. More stadiums are under construction at various places including Patna, Jaipur and such others.

Considering that India is a vast country the number of stadiums is not very large. But a good deal of expenditure is involved in constructing a stadium. The Ad Hoc Enquiry Committee on Games and Sports (1958-59), appointed by the Government of India had recommended that utility stadiums should be built on 'Shramadan' lines; or, if this was not possible, at least, a space should be enclosed. This recommendation was expected to be followed where financial reasons might prevent a full-size stadium from being constructed.

Under the Scheme of Construction of Stadia, financial assistance is being extended to State Governments, State Sports Councils, Municipali-

ties, District Boards, etc., for the construction of stadia on a matching basis. To get a larger number of stadia constructed within the limited resources available, the Scheme was revised to assist the construction of Utility Stadia only, costing not more than Rs. 100,000 each. The maximum Central assistance available for each such stadium is Rs. 25,000 and quite a number of them has come into existence under this Scheme.

Grants amounting to Rs. 4,32,365 were paid in 1960 to the Governments of Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Maharashtra, Mysore, Kerala and West Bengal towards its share of the Central assistance for the construction of Stadia.

(b) Mountaineering

Mountaineering as a sport of adventure has been gaining much popularity and it deserves a special mention, particularly after the outstanding success recorded in 1965 by Indian Teams in conquering the summit of the world. The Himalayan Mountaineering Institute set up at Darjeeling, has been doing much useful work. The Union Government had set up in 1965 a committee to make recommendations about the development of the Western Himalayan Mountaineering Institute at Manali. The report of the Committee received high consideration. Grants are also given to universities for organizing Coaching Camps in mountaineering for university students.

(c) Arjuna and other Awards to Sports Persons

The Union Government have instituted 'Arjuna Awards' to honour sports-men and women of the year in recognition of their outstanding contribution to different games and sports. These awards were instituted in 1961, and 20 sports-men in different games were honoured. Nine sports-men in 1962, 7 in 1963, 7 in 1964 and so on have received these awards till to-day. The awards are given by the President of India at a special function held at Rashtrapati Bhavan, New Delhi. It is to be noted here that Arjuna award is the highest national honour for sportsperson in India which is awarded on the recommendation of the All-India Council of Sports. This Council also recommends the names of the sports persons to whom Arjuna Awards of Distinction to be conferred by the Government of India.

The Government of India have also decorated some personalities in the field of physical education and sports with the award of Padma Shri and Padma Bhushan.

(d) Development of Vyayamshalas and Akhadas

Under this scheme, grants amounting to Rs.34,259 for example, were paid in 1960-61 to Vyayamshalas, Akhadas, Sports-Clubs, Recreation-Centres etc., for the purchase of library books, equipment, etc., on the basis of 75 per cent of the expenditure.

(e) Scholarships for Higher Studies in Physical Education

This scheme had provided for the award of four scholarships each of the value of Rs.200 per mensem, tenable for one year, for specialisation in certain selected indigenous physical education activities. Three candidates were recommended by the Research Sub-committee of the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation during 1960-61 for Yoga, Wrestling and Folk Dances. Later this scheme was abolished along with the abolition of the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation.

The Kothari Education Commission (1964-66)

It was appointed by the Government of India by resolution dated 14th July 1964 to advise Government on the national pattern of education and on the general principles and policies for the development of education at all stages and in all respects.

Why This Commission?

The main causes for appointing this Commission were as given below:

- (1) In spite of educational expansion there is a great dissatisfaction about several aspects of educational development.
- (2) The country is in need of a great economic and social change and education is the only way out to bring about the desired change.
- (3) The Government of India are convinced that education is the key to national prosperity and welfare and that no investment is likely to yield greater returns than investment in human resources of which the most important component is education.
- (4) It is desirable to survey the entire field of educational development as the various parts of the educational system strongly interact with and influence on another.
- (5) While planning the education for India, it must necessarily emanate from Indian experience and conditions.

Main Considerations

The main features of the Kothari Commission's Report are:

- (1) Introduction of work-experience which includes manual work, production experience, etc., and social service as integral part of general education, more or less, at all levels of education.
- (2) Stress on moral education and inculcation of a sense of social responsibility.
- (3) Vocationalization of Secondary Education.
- (4) Strengthening the centres of advance study and setting up of a small number of Universities which would aim at achieving highest international standards.
- (5) Special emphasis on the training and quality of teachers for schools.
- (6) High priority to education for agriculture and research in agriculture and allied sciences.

Body of the Report

The whole report is divided into four parts. In the second part, along with other topics, School Curriculum is discussed. Introduction to the topic of School Curriculum is summarized as follows:

"Education is regarded as a life long and tri-polar process based on teacher, taught and curriculum. Our Commission has not neglected the third pole. We can rather say that special emphasis has been laid on this third pole of education. The Commission wants that a unified approach should be taken to the framing of the entire school curriculum, a new definition of the content of general education, and a new approach to the place of specialization.

Topics of Recommendations On School Curriculum

The Commission has dealt with the following topics related to School Curriculum: (1) Essentials of Curricular Improvement, (2) Organisation of the Curricula, (3) Study of languages, (4) Science and Mathematics Education, (5) Social Studies and Social Science, (6) Work Experience, (7) Social Service, (8) Physical Education, (9) Education in Moral and Supiritual Values, (10) Creative Activities, (11) Differentiation of Curricula for Boys and Girls, and (12) New Curriculum and Basic Education.

Recommendations on Physical Education

There has been a tendency in recent government schemes of physical education to emphasize only the physical fitness value of physical education and ignore its educational values. It must be emphasized that such education contributes not only to physical fitness but also to physical efficiency, mental alertness and the development of certain qualities like perseverance, team spirit, leadership, obedience to rules, moderation in victory and balance in defeat. A satisfactory programme of physical education can be developed only on the basis of the following principles:

- (1) The physical education programme should be planned for desirable outcomes keeping in mind the interests and capacity of the participants.
- (2) The traditional forms of play and physical activities that have developed in our country should receive due emphasis in the programme.
- (3) The activities promoted should develop in each child a sense of personal worth and pride.
- (4) A sense of sharing responsibility in a spirit of democratic co-operation should grow from experience on playground and also in the gymnasium.
- (5) The programme offered should supplement other programmes of education and not duplicate them.
- (6) The programme should be within our financial means.
- (7) The programme should reach all rather than a selected few.
- (8) Special instruction and coaching should be provided for students with talent and special aptitude.

Physical education should include developmental exercises, rhythmic activities, sports and games, outing activities and group handling activities. All these have simple and advanced forms. The simpler activities should be introduced in the early classes, the more advanced ones should be gradually provided as boys and girls become more and more mature.

The very young are not psychologically and physically mature for formal and vigorous forms of activities. Their sense of basic movements and coordination have to be developed gradually. The syllabus for the young at the pre-primary and the early primary stages should be based on their desire to imitate movements around them, their spirit of play, their wanting to dare and to do something better than their comrades. This is

the most vital stage of 'education through movement'. A child should develop mastery over basic skills, such as walking properly, running, dodging, throwing, etc. Higher forms of coordination like accuracy and precision must wait for the next stage.

As the child grows into the pre-adolescent stage, his interests and capacity change and physical education should provide for more challenging activities, opportunities for simple team play and finer forms of skills. The adolescent in the secondary school desires to imitate the activities of the adults, and he should be taught sports, games and athletics in their standard form. Skills learnt earlier should be perfected through guidance and practice. It is an age when boys and girls desire excellence and the physical education syllabus must include techniques for good performance.

At the primary stage, except in the last two classes, a common syllabus for boys and girls can be used. From there onwards, the syllabus should be planned separately keeping in mind their respective interests and abilities. Rhythmic activities will have an appeal for girls, non-contact and less strenuous games such as badminton, throw-ball, etc., are popular. The more vigorous games, such as basketball, net-ball and hockey may be brought in at a later stage. Athletic items in standard form should also find a place.

The preparation of programmes of physical education for all stages should take into account not only what is useful but also what is possible in view of the limitations of facilities, time and number of teachers. In recent years, a number of schemes like the National Plan of Physical Education prepared by a group of experts at the request of the Ministry of Education, the National Discipline Scheme and the Auxiliary Cadet Corps with several common activities began to vie with one another. A special committee appointed by the Ministry of Education under the chairmanship of Dr. H.N. Kunzru recommended that an integrated scheme with a syllabus selecting the best features of each should be evolved. The Committee tried to bring about a compromise between the claims made by the enthusiasts of different schemes; and the result is a mixed programme of physical education called the National Fitness Corps. There is a danger that in the implementation of the new scheme, the educational purposes of the programme might be forgotten or neglected. As the compromise scheme has provoked a good deal of criticism, we suggest that the matter be examined once again and a programme of physical education be designed in the light of the principles enunciated above.

The National Policy on Education (1967-68)

For the first time in 1967, a Sen Committee of Members of Parliament was set up to frame the national policy on education in order to follow the path of national development so that India can keep pace with the other countries of the world.

The following were the terms of reference before the Committee:

(1) To consider the report of the National Education Commission, headed by Dr. D.S. Kothari, the then U.G.C. Chairman; (2) To prepare a draft statement of the National Policy on Education for the consideration of the Government of India; and (3) To identify a programme for immediate action.

The National Policy on Education, announced by the Government of India in 1968, stated that—

“Games and sports should be developed on a large scale, and on a priority basis, with the object of improving the physical fitness and sportsmanship of the average student rather than only for training champions. There should be great emphasis on the provision of playing fields and on the fullest use of stadiums by educational institutions. Coaches should be provided in schools and colleges. Special effort should be made to develop hockey in which we excel, football, volleyball, wrestling and Indian games like Kabaddi or Khokho which cost little but provide vigorous physical exercise. Hiking and mountaineering need special encouragement.”

NCERT Curriculum in Physical Education (1975)

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), New Delhi, under the Union Ministry of Education and Culture, has been attending to coordination and framing of syllabi, provision of text-books and framing of evaluation schemes in varied disciplines by establishing sections for each discipline.

The Council prepared in 1975 a paper on “Approach to the Curriculum for the 10 Year School” in which physical education is considered as one of the seven compulsory subjects with the object of integrating it into the new pattern of education suggested by the Education Commission (1965).

Draft Curriculum (1975)

This Council also prepared in 1975 a Draft Curriculum in Physical Education for classes I to X. This curriculum covers the core as well as

optional programme with a large variety for selection by the participants. The learning outcomes of each activity included in the syllabus are indicated therein, with a scheme of evaluation of pupils, spelling out the areas of appraisal. The curriculum also emphasises inclusion of health education under the programmes. Guidelines for teacher requirements, playgrounds, equipment, time-allocation and the like have also been included in the draft curriculum in order to develop a workable programme of physical education in their respective spheres of duty.

(a) Programme Content of Draft

The NCERT is of the opinion that physical education is now a compulsory subject in schools and not a mere co-curricular activity.

Since all schools may not have adequate facilities for sports and games like playgrounds and sports equipment, the aforesaid Draft Curriculum stresses the need for using low-cost materials or teaching physical exercises which do not need equipment. The Draft Curriculum notes that the physical education activities can make a significant contribution to the social, emotional, mental and physical growth of children. It, therefore, emphasizes that all students and not a selected few, should take part in games and sports.

Practical aspects of health education have also been included in the Draft Curriculum. Physical education teachers are expected to educate children in solving certain health problems on their own.

(b) Objectives of Draft

The Draft points out that the major objective of physical education is to provide recreation and enjoyment to all pupils with no exception. Another objective is to improve the national standards in sports and games.

(c) Basic Requirements of Draft

Every effort should be made to provide students with a playground which must be properly fenced. Where no such facility can be provided the school should make use of any open land near the school even on the payment of a nominal rent for it. The possibility of using community playgrounds, wherever available, may also be explored by the schools. Schools can even try to share a common playground.

The importance of having a gymnasium in every school has also been highlighted in the Draft, especially in schools where there is no scope for outdoor activity. A classroom or a shed may even be converted into a gymnasium.

In schools where competent teachers are available to teach swimming, the use of a pond or a tank in the nearby locality has been suggested in the Draft, provided all safety measures are ensured.

It is also for the schools to provide sports equipment like footballs, volleyballs, goal-posts, nets, etc., to the students.

(d) Procedure of Evaluation of Students' Progress in Physical Education

Such evaluation should be based on the students' individual capacity, performance and progress. Assessment is to be internal, continuous and systematic and should measure the multi-dimensional progress of the child and the marks be taken into consideration while promoting the student of the next class. Some of the recommended areas of appraisal relate to fitness, aptitude, health, personality, skill and the like.

The Ishwarbhai Patel Review Committee on the Curriculum for the Ten-Year School (1977)

(1) Need for a Review Committee

(a) *Background:* The recommendations of the Kothari Education Commission (1964-66) were considered by the Government of India and a resolution on the National Policy on Education was adopted after consulting both houses of Parliament (1968).

At the secondary stage, the resolution highlighted the urgency to adopt the new pattern of 10+2+3 for school and college classes with an intensive effort to diversify and vocationalise the +2 stage.

The Ministry of Education and Social Welfare appointed an Expert Group in 1973 to develop curriculum for the 10+2 pattern. The Group drafted an Approach Paper in 1975, which was circulated for opinion of the State Governments and of teachers, planners and educational administrators.

A publication entitled "The Curriculum for the Ten-Year School — A Framework" was published by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in 1975.

In 1975 NCERT prepared syllabi, text-books and other material in consultation with experienced teachers, subject-specialists and representatives of State Institutes of Education and of Science Education within the framework of the NCERT publication.

(b) *Criticisms:* The syllabi and text-books prepared by NCERT specially for classes IX and X evoked criticism from teachers, parents and children. The main criticisms were that the scheme of examination contained too many subjects for study, the text-books were too many and too voluminous and, therefore, there was no time for self-study and physical activities.

(2) Appointment of Review Committee

Dr. P.C. Chunder, Union Minister of Education and Social Welfare, in his capacity as President of NCERT, felt that an objective assessment of the syllabi and text-books should be made and, therefore, in June 1977 he appointed a Review Committee under the chairmanship of Shri Ishwarbhai Patel.

(3) Opinion of Review Committee on Physical Education

"By nature the urge of most children is to be active. The child needs both mental and physical activities without which the harmonious development of both body and mind cannot be achieved".

"In general, the aim of physical education should be to provide physical and mental satisfaction through movements of various types and by creative physical activities. It should develop alertness of mental and physical response to commands and directions, and help to maintain suppleness of the body. It should stimulate respiration and circulation and thus aid growth in children and ensure health. It should encourage children to be happy and independent, and to approach physical tasks with confidence".

(4) Suggested Programme

(a) *Primary Stage (classes I to V/VI):* The activities should be of two types: (1) those which involve functional movement and aim at muscu-

lar coordination, e.g., dance, games, gymnastics; and (2) those which are concerned with movements as a "means of exposition".

(b) *Middle and Secondary Stage (classes V/VI to X)*: At the middle stage there should be basic courses reinforcing what has taken place in the primary stage. The programme may be varied. Even then account must be taken of the immaturity and lack of bodily development and stamina.

The Draft National Sports Policy (1980)

In 1980, the All India Council of Sports (Ministry of Education and Culture) framed a Draft National Sports Policy for the first time in the country. This Draft National Sports Policy dwelt mainly on the organizational aspect with emphasis on competitive sports, coaching, required development of facilities, and functioning of the sports bodies with an eye on winning international laurels, although it has recognised the right of every citizen to participate in and enjoy games, sports and recreational activities to make the nation healthy and strong.

It has also set the primary goal to make all Indian citizens alive to the need for regular physical exercise from early childhood to an advanced age. To achieve this not only physical education is to be made compulsory, curricular subject from primary to higher secondary level and a requirement at the college and university level, but also mass consciousness on physical education and health has to be increased to a desired level; literacy and nutrition levels have to be raised; and universal participation to be ensured by providing easily available facilities.

The Draft National Sports Policy outlined programmes for the improved functioning of the two Central Institutes in Physical Education and Sports, namely, the Lakshmibai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior and the Netaji Subhash National Institute of Sports, Patiala, but remained content with entrusting the task of physical education curriculum construction to the National Council of Educational Research and Training, Delhi.

The aforesaid Draft on the National Sports Policy is still being discussed at the Central and State Government levels as well as publicly. In September 1983 a meeting of the Sports Ministers of States was held to discuss this matter. The Seminar on "Asian Games and Thereafter" was organized in November 1983 by Shri S.W. Dhabe, the Convenor of the Parliamentary Forum of Sports. In this seminar and earlier meetings of the

Forum, discussions were held on the National Sports Policy and setting up of the Sports Development Authority of India whose activities would include development of sports and maintenance as well as utilization of the existing stadia. At present Mr. A.S. Talwar who is the officer on special duty for Sports Development Authority of India represents the Union Sports Ministry.

Third All-India Educational Survey (1979-82)

(a) Need for Survey of Games and Sports Material

In today's context of development, the schools have a much greater role to play in the society than merely providing instruction to the children in the classroom. They have to provide certain facilities and services to the pupils which are meant for their physical well-being. While the games and sports are regarded as integral and important component of the school programme and are essential for the physical development of the children, many of the schools suffer from lack of sports equipment and material. Data are needed to assess the adequacy of the sports equipment and material in the schools.

The Third All-India Educational Survey addressed itself to this problem where no data were available in the past.

(b) Findings of the Survey from Adequacy Point of View Primary Schools

Of the 4,55,729 schools at this stage it is observed that only 1,20,592 (26.46%) have sports and games equipment. Among these schools 1,04,007 are in rural areas and the other 16,585 in urban areas. Thus, it is observed that the sports and games equipment is non-existent in 74.9% rural schools and 60.1% urban schools. Actually as many as 1,99,749 (43.64%) primary schools had reported as having playground facilities. From this it may be concluded that though schools may claim to have playground facility they may not own equipment. It is probable that there may be schools who own equipment but without any playground facility. However among the states of Gujrat (72.80%), Maharashtra (55.3%), Manipur (40.4%), Nagaland (87.7%), Punjab (34.1%), Rajasthan (75.2%) and West Bengal (36.3%) have reported at least 30% schools having sports and games equipment. Of course in Gujarat the schools include middle classes also as all these schools have classes I-VII. Managementwise, the position is far better in schools managed by private agencies whereas the proportion of schools possessing these equipments is least among government-managed schools.

Coming to adequacy hardly 17,986 (14.91%) of the 1,20,592 schools possess adequate materials and here again the larger proportion of urban schools are equipped with games and sports material in comparison to rural schools. Further larger proportion of privately managed institutions, whether aided or unaided, have adequate material in comparison to those managed by local body or government.

Middle Schools

In 68,226 (75.24%) of the 90,681 middle schools the games and sports material are available of which 57,208 are in rural areas and 11,018 in urban areas. A comparison regarding the proportion of rural and urban institutions possessing this reveals that slightly larger proportion of rural schools (75.54%) have this facility as compared to 73.68% urban schools. But it is observed that only 53,380 (58.87%) middle schools have playground facility, either their own or shared with other institutions. Thus, it is observed that quite a large number of schools though own games and sports equipment do not have playground facility. As the overall position indicates, even amongst all the states this figure is quite high although in no state all the schools have this facility. Managementwise, as in the case of primary schools, larger population of schools under private management have this facility in comparison to local body or government.

About adequacy, although 75.24% of the middle schools have reported availability of games and sports material, only 23.53% (16053) of 68,226 schools have reported that the available equipments are adequate. Again, in the case of primary schools, the proportion of schools at this stage is comparatively less (20.28%) than those in urban areas, 40.43%. Thus the position regarding adequacy is far from satisfactory both in rural and urban areas.

Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools

Out of the 42,621 high and higher secondary schools and intermediate, junior or pre-university colleges 33,572 (78.9%) institutions either own their playground or share it with others. But coming to possession of games and sports material it is observed that 39,046 (91.61%) schools have this facility in them. Thus, it is observed that at least 5,474 institutions possess equipment of sports and games but do not have playground facilities. However, the position is very much better in comparison to the earlier two stages of education. Coming to states even though more than 80% institutions in all the states have claimed that they have got games and sports materials, it is worthwhile to mention that in the states of Andhra

Pradesh (95.0%), Assam (95.4%), Haryana (93.8%), Jammu and Kashmir (94.4%), Karnataka (93.8%), Kerala (97.2%), Madhya Pradesh (91.9%), Manipur (90.6%), Nagaland (94.0%), Orissa (2.5%), Punjab (91.6%), Tamil Nadu (97.5%), Tripura (95.4%) and Uttar Pradesh (95.2%) more than 90% institutions have facilities for sports and games equipment. In case of Secondary/Higher Secondary Schools, it is observed that in larger proportion of institutions in rural areas (95.40%) as against the urban areas (85.70%) have sports and games material with them.

However, managementwise it is observed that those managed by government (92.78%) or local body (95.48%) are far better than the privately managed ones either aided (90.26%) or unaided (92.57%).

Even in regard to adequacy, it is observed that in 52.87% institutions it is adequate which is much better than in institutions at middle or primary stages.

Summary

It will thus be seen that, during the post-independence period, physical education has been given increasing importance in the general educational pattern of our country and this discipline has been liberally supported and encouraged by the Central and State Governments and educational institutions for the benefit of the youth. Physical education is now compulsory at the primary and secondary stage of education, and is also encouraged in colleges. The programme of physical education includes fundamental and free movements, recreational activities, rhythmic, developmental activities, track and field events, games and sports, formal activities, gymnastics, mass activities and aquatics whenever facilities are available. Periods, varying from two to five per week, are set aside in the school time-table with more periods in the lower classes and the minimum in the higher classes. Efforts have also been made to introduce evaluation of pupils by providing suitable tests in physical education. Inter-class, Inter-school, Inter-District and Inter-State Competitions are encouraged by School Managements, State Governments and the Central Government, through the School Games Federation of India which has been in existence for the last 30 years. The Inter-University Board of Sports conducts competitions for college students.

Various State Governments have also established colleges of physical education wherein one-year courses in physical education are offered to graduates. At the undergraduate level, training in physical education is provided either in the normal teacher education programme for under-

graduates or through special courses conducted for them. In most of the States, supervisory agencies in physical education have been established consisting of District Officers or Zonal Officers under their respective State level staff.

Efforts are also made to provide funds for the organization of physical education through special Government grants, and levying games fees for children. Generally, expenditure on physical education incurred by aided schools is held admissible for their normal grants as per rules laid down in their respective education codes.

PROSPECTS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

Introduction to Prospects of Physical Education as Integral Part of Education

The importance of physical education in the educational curriculum is an established fact. The teachers of physical education, both men and women, are in great demand because educational institutions are always in need of trained teachers. How far the subject matter involved in the physical education curriculum is being handled earnestly, conscientiously and educationally on sound lines is, however, a matter of critical and serious thinking.

In the national scene, time has come to arrive at self-realisation of the fact that although 37 years have elapsed since attaining independence, our country is still in the developing stage and striving to make an all-round improvement with the help of its own resources and the vast manpower, and that a good deal of success in this effort depends on how properly the available resources and manpower are being utilized.

In spite of the various efforts made by all agencies and on all levels, it is, however, observed that we have not yet touched even the fringe of the problem, for physical education has not yet become an integral part of education in India. The magnitude of the problem can be realised from the fact that we have more than 1800 lakh student youth in more than 10 lakhs of educational institutions in the country. These data are about ten years old and the up-to-date position will certainly be on a higher side. It is, by no means, a small task to achieve the institutional as well as pupil coverage under the programme for which a prospective plan in a phased manner is most essential. To achieve this coverage of more than 10 lakhs of educa-

tional institutions and of more than 1800 lakhs of students in the country and further to improve standards in the field of physical education and sports will certainly mean not only the framing of a national policy in this area but also preparing a clear-cut phased programme with definite guidelines to implement it. It would, therefore, be proper at this stage to examine how best physical education and sports can be introduced as a compulsory subject in the educational institutions in the country. No doubt, we have realised in principle, the philosophy of physical education and sports and their contribution to the development of youth in the country. However, we have not yet succeeded in achieving horizontal as well as vertical coverage of the various educational institutions in the country for practical reasons such as inadequate funds, lack of facilities, overcrowded academic curriculum and the like. It is quite encouraging to note that the National Sports Policy, realising the above position, has strongly emphasized the need for effective compulsory physical education and sports for students. However, a perspective planning in a phased manner for implementing this policy is also necessary.

In our national reconstruction programme, people's fitness will also have to be given priority so that the country may have a sturdy generation not only to look after its welfare but also for defence, agricultural as well as industrial advancement. It is necessary that with our increased national responsibility and improved standard of living, our needs in health, physical education, sports and recreation are bound to increase rather than decrease. The prosperity of our future generation will, therefore, depend on the completeness of our educational effort and its effect in producing able-bodied, intelligent, virile citizenry out of the crores of the student population in the educational institutions of the country. Some of the important factors which need our attention in planning physical education for the student population of the country in the next 20 or 25 years are indicated below.

Need for a National Outlook

It has now been agreed that physical education contributes to pupil education and helps to achieve the objectives of education in general. Since physical education offers universal standard of conduct and plays a major role in the total development of a child and since modern physical education and sports should have social commitments of "living best and serving most," and of translating the idea of sportsmanship and the sporting society into reality, this discipline deserves to be based on sound canons of organization, administration and supervision of education in the country. It should be on the priority list of items of our National Recon-

struction Programme for which a National Policy on Physical Education, specially for the student youth, will have to be framed. Only then will the National Physical Fitness Programme meet its desired success; otherwise, the present testing programme will remain a mere ritual and never really become a national programme for improving the national standard of physical fitness and work capacity.

Need for Examining Requirements of Educational Institutions for Effective Implementation of Physical Education and Sports as a Compulsory Subject

Educational institutions in the country have been classified under three stages of education: (1) Primary Stage, (2) High/Higher Secondary Stage, and (3) University College Stage. It would be necessary to consider the requirements of physical education and sports under these three stages of education.

Primary Stage

It is observed that compulsory introduction of physical education and sports has been given more weightage in secondary schools, leaving the primary schools to the initiative of the class-teacher and availability of funds. When it is realised that children in their developing stage do need a lot of free movement and outdoor activities, it is necessary to maintain a proper progression in the development of health and skills of the primary school children. The present lopsided position of giving more emphasis at the secondary than the primary stage needs to be properly remedied by first attending to the requirement at the primary stage.

It cannot be denied that more than eight lakhs of primary schools in the country, although they should be considered as the base on which the entire pyramid of physical education and sports needs to be developed, are not at all provided with qualified staff and other facilities by way of open space, equipment and adequate provision of periods in the time-table.

The first and most important task is to qualify the primary teachers to take up this responsibility. Since these schools do not have specialist teachers in different physical activities and all teaching is entrusted to the class teacher, the staffing pattern in physical education and sports should take into account the fact that physical education and sports in primary schools should mainly be the responsibility of the class teachers interested in this discipline. Further, it is to be noted that quite a large number of primary schools in the country situated in the rural areas is managed by a

single teacher who is required to take over the load of teaching academic subjects in the vertical ladder, that is, from Class I to IV/V. These problems may be tackled in a two-fold way.

Firstly, each primary school will have to be provided with at least one class teacher for each class who is properly oriented in physical education and sports. Secondly, every prospective teacher taking up an assignment in a primary school as a class teacher must be properly qualified in physical education and sports. This problem deserves to be tackled on a war-front basis. It will serve little purpose if a half-hearted beginning is made to tackle this problem.

The problem of the little open space and the simple equipment required for primary schools can be tackled without heavy financial requirements if once the problem of providing primary schools with qualified or oriented physical education teachers is solved.

The problem of the syllabus in physical education for classes I to IV/V in primary schools has been solved by the N.C.E.R.T., Delhi, to a large extent.

High/Higher Secondary Stage

It cannot be denied that high/higher secondary schools are the agencies which can really provide opportunities to the students not only for the development of their physical fitness but also for achieving a desired level of skill in sports, games and other outdoor activities. This is a stage of education during which students undergo rapid changes from physiological, psychological and sociological points of view. The period should be treated as a nursery wherein future physically fit citizens of the country can be built and also wherein the country can expect to find talents in sports and games who can make their mark in the national and international sports. This age-group needs to be tackled with utmost care, tact, and best technical guidance.

The requirement for introduction of compulsory physical education and sports in secondary schools is the adequate number of qualified teachers of physical education to achieve not only the institutional coverage but also the student coverage. At least 50% of secondary schools in the country are yet without qualified teachers of physical education. Then again these schools do not have physical education teachers commensurate with the number of pupils studying therein. The result is that secondary schools with an enrolment higher than 1000 have physical education

teachers too few in number to cope with the load of looking after 1000 or more pupils. This position certainly hampers the objectives of introducing physical education and sports as a compulsory subject in these schools.

Besides, the present qualified physical education teachers in these secondary schools are working without any consideration of their level of attainment and their capability of dealing with school children along proper educational lines.

As regards the organization of physical education in these schools, the recommendations of the N.C.E.R.T., Delhi, given in their draft curriculum on physical education for classes I to X, cover all aspects such as playground, gymnasium, time-allocation, funds, intra-mural and inter-school competitions, team teaching, evaluation scheme and the like. These recommendations should concurrently be implemented.

University College Stage

These colleges should be considered as a continuously evolving period of growth, development and maturity that gradually comes to fruition. The opportunity should, therefore, be provided to students for individual as well as group participation in physical activities of their interests. Further, students should have the satisfaction that this participation has helped them to understand that the experience obtained therefrom is of much value to be carried over in the adult years that follow. It should be further observed that physical education and sports in the university colleges lay more emphasis on the competitive aspect of sports.

The Madras Workshop organized by the N.C.E.R.T., Delhi, has framed a core as well as compulsory programme for this stage of education and has also framed syllabus for specialized programmes in different games and sports on the basis of the interests of the students.

It is further necessary that a well-devised syllabus for the development of skills in the individual sports and games is developed along with the relevant aspects of a theoretical nature so that university degree students can choose a game or a sport of their choice and go through that programme.

The question of giving proper pay and status to the teachers of physical education in university colleges needs urgent consideration. Those who work as physical education teachers in colleges should be given status and pay-scales on par with their colleagues. Unless this is

done their involvement in the college work may not be wholehearted to achieve the desired results.

There is a tendency on the part of managements to appoint only one physical director in their colleges irrespective of their strength. If physical education and sports are to receive due attention and ensure maximum participation of the students, one director should not be expected to deal with more than 250 students.

Besides, in order to impress upon the managements to develop adequate facilities by way of open space, equipment and other requirements, it seems incumbent upon them to establish in each college a separate Department of Physical Education and Sports which should be responsible for making the plan for budgetary provision, the yearly calendar for intra-mural and inter-collegiate sports, the time-table for compulsory as well as voluntary programme and the like.

Need for Adequate and High Professional Preparation

Educational Institutes in the country are categorized under three types as:

- (i) Primary/Middle Schools,
- (ii) High Schools, and
- (iii) Higher Secondary Schools/University Colleges.

The requirements of professional leadership for these three types may have to be planned as suggested below:

(i) *Primary/Middle Schools*: These are the base on which the pyramid of physical education can be developed. It is to be noted that quite a large number of primary schools and particularly those situated in rural areas with single teacher do not have teachers conversant with teaching physical education. The problem may have to be solved in a two-fold way. Firstly, the in-service primary teachers, at least one from each school, will have to be put through a short-term course of 8 to 10 weeks' duration in which he should be acquainted with the contents of the syllabus and the methodology of teaching them. Such courses will have to be organized district-wise till such time that each primary school in the country has, at least, one teacher oriented through such short-time course in physical education. The Districtwise orientation courses should be conducted by the respective State Government. However, courses should be manned by the staff trained through the various Government and/or University

recognized colleges of Physical Education. This will help to achieve institutional coverage of more than 8 lakhs of primary schools in the country. Secondly, it is necessary to see that all primary/basic teacher education colleges in the country include physical education as one of the compulsory method subjects so that every new teacher coming out of these primary/basic teacher education colleges is qualified to teach physical education along with other academic subjects. Such a step will help to ensure that teachers employed in primary schools hereafter can be qualified to shoulder the responsibility of teaching physical education to the students who are under their tutelage.

(ii) *High Schools*: In these schools, graduate teachers with one year's degree/diploma in physical education are considered to be qualified to take up the responsibility of physical education. Besides these teachers, teachers who have received professional training in physical education for three years for their graduation should be considered equally qualified and should be able to enjoy the status and scale on par with B.A., B.Ed. or B.Sc., Besides these, persons with a Master's Degree in Physical Education should be able to enjoy the status and scale on par with M.A., B.Ed. or M.Sc.

At present, excluding Maharashtra (36) and Karnataka (14), the number of physical education colleges in the country is hardly 40 (Refer to Appendix). This is far too inadequate a number to provide leadership in physical education at this stage of education. Even in these professional colleges, there is no uniformity in the teacher training programme.

It would, therefore, be necessary to see that in each state Physical Education Colleges are established in adequate number to qualify graduate teachers for teaching physical education in high schools. Alternatively, physical education may be offered as one of the method subjects in the B.Ed. Colleges so that teachers may be qualified to teach physical education along with one of the academic subjects. Of course, the B.Ed. Colleges offering physical education as one of the method subjects will have to fulfil the norms of facilities by way of playgrounds, equipment, staff, etc., required for teaching this subject properly.

(iii) *Higher Secondary Schools/University Colleges*: Persons qualified in Master's Degree are eligible to teach academic subjects in these educational institutes. Similar facilities may have to be developed in them so that people qualified with Master's Degree in physical education will be held eligible to teach physical education and will enjoy the status and scale on par with their counterparts. Special efforts are necessary by the Universities to recognise an adequate number of suitable

colleges of physical education for starting Master's courses in Physical Education so that Higher Secondary Schools and University Colleges may have adequate number of teachers with Master's Degree in Physical Education. Such a step will go a long way to promote physical education and sports on up-to-date scientific lines. Subjects such as Sports Medicine, Sports Engineering, Sports Psychology, Sports Sociology, Kinesiology, Tests and Measurements, Physical Play Therapy, Therapeutical Gymnastics, Adaptive Physical Education and the like are specialized fields of study. The lack of the post-graduate courses in these fields has adversely affected the promotion of physical education on scientific lines. There is, therefore, the need of starting graduate and post-graduate courses in these specialized disciplines. There is also urgent need to develop research facilities in different aspects of physical education leading to Doctorate in them. It will be incumbent on Universities to set up such research units either directly on their campus or in the established colleges under their jurisdiction.

There is a move in the State of Maharashtra to open Sports Universities. This move should spread in all States of India. There is the dire need of establishing National Sports Research Laboratory and Library.

Need for Curriculum Development in Physical Education

As in other disciplines, Curriculum Development in Physical Education is a matter of experimentation and modification from time to time, based on the past experience.

The National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi, has already framed a Curriculum in Physical Education for classes I to X and the same is being developed for higher classes. It would be worth while for all States to adopt this curriculum with suitable local modifications and implement the same immediately as a stop-gap arrangement. But since India is a vast continent with varying environmental and social conditions, each state will have to set up its own special units for curriculum development in physical education.

Needs for Facilities

Educational institutions will have to develop play areas, indoor sheds, and equipment so as to ensure participation of all students with interest and willingness. These facilities need to be developed in all educational institutions right from the grass root level to the highest possible level.

Need for Organization, Administration and Supervision

For the implementation of the National Reconstruction Programme of Physical Education, a strong and effective organizing administering and supervisory agency needs to be established. Such an agency may have been established in most of the Indian States but it is not on a uniform basis and suffers from inefficiency and inadequacy of staff and paucity of funds. Such State Agency should be established in every state and manned by professionally qualified persons who have status and scale on par with the supervisory agency in general education working under Education Department of the State not only at the headquarters but also at the District and Sub-District Units. There is also need to have a separate Sports Ministry coupled with the Department of Physical Education in every State of India as well as under the Union Government.

Need for National Council of Sports and Physical Education (NCSPE)

It would, therefore, be necessary to set up a separate National Council of Sports and Physical Education for framing a national policy on physical education particularly for student and non-student youth of the country and advise State Governments, State Departments, State Sports Councils, State Sports Universities and other Universities on matters relating to integration of physical education with general education and local as well as national traditions, and also on matters of implementation of and financial assistance to the required development of sports and physical education in their respective states so that this discipline may render effective service to youth in achieving the goals of education which our country has set before us in the new pattern of education.

Need for National Council of Physical Education and Research (NCPER)

The Draft National Sports Policy has failed to recognise the need for creation of a national parent organization to foster, develop and promote physical education at the base as well as research level to make participation in physical activity including sports as part of living and developing. All physical educational institutions in every part of the country need be coordinated and developed through a fostering parent organization. There should, therefore, be a National Council of Physical Education and Research with its State Councils in all the States.

The NCPER should cater to the activity needs of the population in general and educational area in particular. The NCPER should provide expertise and assistance, and coordinate matters with regard to uniformity of curriculum and syllabus, programmes and standards, accreditation, and research in the field of physical education. The NCPER should have liaison with the Association of Indian Universities, UGC, NCERT, ICMR, Inter-University Sports Board, and School Games Federation of India. The NCPER should advise the Central and State Governments, Universities, Higher Secondary Councils, and Boards of Primary, Secondary, Higher Secondary Education on all matters relating to physical education. The NCPER should be responsible for all programmes for the averages, the gifted and the handicapped.

Need of Hard and Dynamic Programme

The most urgent and immediate need in order to make the compulsory scheme of physical education effective is to change the present soft programme of physical education into a hard but dynamic one. Many of the old types of exercises will have to be discarded; for example, wand drill, flag drill, Indian clubs, dumb-bells and a host of others. These exercises may have, from the spectators' point of view, a demonstrative value; but from participants' point of view, these have become dull, monotonous and thus have lost both the developmental as well as recreational value. Students have lost interest in them.

As early as 1940, Mr. James Buchanan who did so much to promote physical education in undivided Bengal, had rightly pointed out in his publication entitled "Suggestions for the Improvement of Physical Education in Schools". "Exercise with apparatus such as dumb-bells, wands and Indian Clubs is not recommended, as experience in a large number of countries has shown that better results can be obtained without them."

The Union Ministry of Education have repeatedly pointed out that there has been a need for reconstruction of the whole programme of physical education because the object of the new compulsory scheme of physical education is the all-round development of the younger generation.

If India aspires not only to keep pace with the developed nations of the world but also to set up an example for others who may wish to follow her, she should keep always before her what Rudyard Kipling had put in the following lines:

"To All to whom this little book may come —
 Health for yourselves and those you hold most dear!
 Content abroad, and happiness at home,
 And—one grand Secret in your private ear —
 Nations have passed away and left no traces,
 And History gives the naked cause of it —
 One single, simple reason in all cases;
 They fell because their people were not fit.

Now, though your Body be mis-shapen, blind,
 Lame, feverish, lacking substance, power of skill,
 Certain it is that men can school the Mind
 To school the sickliest Body to her will —
 As many have done, whose glory blazes still
 Like mighty flames in meanest lanterns lit:
 Wherefore, we pray the crippled, weak and ill —
 Be fit—be fit! In mind at first be fit!

And though your Spirit seem uncouth or small,
 Stubborn as clay or shifting as the sand,
 Strengthen the Body, and the Body shall
 Strengthen the Spirit till she take command;
 As a bold rider brings his horse in hand
 At the tall fence, with voice and heel and bit,
 And leaps while all the field are at stand.
 Be fit—be fit! In body next be fit!

Nothing on earth—no Arts, no Gifts, nor Graces —
 No Fame, no Wealth outweighs the want of it.
 This is the Law which every law embraces —
 Be fit—be fit! In mind and body be fit!

The even heart that seldom slurs its beat —
 The cool head weighing what that heart desires —
 The measuring eye that guides the hands and feet —
 The Soul unbroken when the Body tires —
 These are the things our weary world requires
 Far more than superfluities of wit:
 Wherefore we pray you, sons of generous sires,
 Be fit—be fit! For Honour's sake be fit!

There is one lesson at all Times and Places —
 One changeless Truth on all things changing writ,
 For boys and girls, men, women, nations, races —
 Be fit—be fit! And once again, be fit!"

Need of Looking Forward While Looking Back

The present century has been marked by great industrial and technological developments in almost all countries of the world. But this progress has brought a curtailment in human physical work demands, a development of a sedentary living habit, and an increment in incidences of hypertension and atrophy based degenerative diseases, including heart and lung diseases, diabetes mellitus, overt obesity etc. There is considerable experimental evidence to show that disuse of physiological functions results in loss of physiological capacities. With the sedentary life, the dynamic and highly adaptive physiological capacities are lost and such losses limit physical capacities of an individual.

The above referred condition is prevalent particularly in developed countries. It is certainly reasonable to believe that this same succession of incidences will occur in developing countries, including our country. It behoves planners in India, among them particularly the physical education planners, to attempt to prevent or deter the degenerative effect on our people that has accompanied and is likely to accompany in greater proportion the advancing technological development. As a first premise it can be agreed that a commitment to the physically active life provides not only a physically vigorous citizenry but also preventive medicine at far lower cost than curative medicine.

Planning for the success of such an effort in physical education in India will require a unique thrust on two fronts: (1) establishing physical education in a perspective of an individual's life span and not limiting this perspective to the formal education years, and (2) promoting, as the overriding goal of physical education, individual commitment to the physically active life.

The term "physically active life" connotes frequent and vigorous large muscle activity that taxes cardiac and skeletal muscle as well as lung function to their full potential. Physical activity must be made part of life, a living habit and not a school habit to be discarded as that phase of life is completed.

Conclusion

It is to be realised that sports and games have now assumed more important space than before in the life of the country. Participation in Olympics and other international games has now become a matter of international prestige. Sport is considered as the vehicle for better inter-

national relationship and understanding. The country's prosperity depends on the general health, physical fitness and technical know-how of its people. It is, therefore, necessary that the existing pattern of physical education and sports for the student and non-student youth in the country needs an overall change.

Changes are inevitable in any progressive nation. It is the responsibility of the planners of India, among them planners in education in general and physical education in particular as regards the problem under consideration, to be consciously aware of the changes and not only to accept the challenge of the time but also snatch every opportunity for bringing into physical education the appropriate changes to give a lead to this inevitable discipline for the continuous and smooth development of the nation. Education of the whole total man is an ever-growing concept and if the present planners of India will not keep themselves abreast of the new innovations, they may be blamed for their professional failures by the future planners. Since educational institutions are always interested in the next and all other future generations, these must lead all.

Educational institutions, governmental and non-governmental, academic and professional, and particularly those that are interested in teacher preparation in physical education in the country can alone take up the challenge with the cooperation of the State Governments and the Central Government of developing pressure on political leaders to the extent that physical education and sports are regarded as an integral and important factor of education, facilitating planned growth and improvement in personality for the good of the people of the country. The sooner these political leaders change towards this new concept of physical education and sports, the better for India.

APPENDIX

List of Colleges and Schools for the Training of Teachers of Physical Education

The first college of physical education was established in 1920 by the Y.M.C.A. at Madras. Since then a number of institutions of physical education have come into existence. These training centres are yearly turning out about a couple of thousands trained teachers of physical education.

(A) The following is a list of colleges and schools of Physical Education Teachers till 1964:

1. Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education, Saidapet, Madras. Established in 1920.
2. Government College of Physical Education, Hyderabad. (A.P.) Established in 1931.
3. Post-Graduate College of Physical Education, Banipur. (West Bengal). Established in 1932.
4. Christian College of Physical Education, Lucknow. (U.P.). Established in 1932.
5. Training Institute of Physical Education, Kandivli (Bombay). Established in 1938.
6. Government College of Physical Education, Rampur (U.P.). Established in 1945 at Allahabad. Shifted to Rampur in 1955.
7. Tirhut School of Physical Education, Muzaffarpur (Bihar). Established in 1946.
8. Indian Institute for Diploma in Physical Culture and Recreation, Amravati (M.P.). Established in 1947.
9. Government College of Health and Physical Education, Bihar, Patna. Established in 1951.
10. The Punjab Government College of Physical Education, Patiala. Established in 1952.
11. Tantiya Tope College of Physical Education, Shivpuri (M.P.). Established in 1954.
12. Gandhi Smarak College of Physical Education, Samodhpur. U.P. Established in 1954.
13. State College of Physical Education (Women), Allahabad. Separated from the co-educational Institute. Men's section shifted to Rampur and Women's section amalgamated in Training College of Women at Allahabad.
14. Government College of Physical Education, Cuttack (Orissa). Established in 1957.
15. Government College of Physical Education, Jodhpur. (Rajasthan). Established in 1957.
16. Shri Samartha Vyayam Mandir, Bombay.
17. Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, Poona.
18. W.T. Education Society's Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, Islampur. Distt. Sangli (Maharashtra)
19. Kranti Smriti Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, Satara.
20. New Education Society's C.P.Ed. Institute, Kolhapur.
21. Beynon Smith Shareerik Shikshan Sanad Vidyalaya, Belgaum.
22. Mallasajjana Vyayam Shala, Dharwar.
23. A.C.P. Vyayam Maha Vidyalaya, Rajpipla.
24. S.S.V.P. Sanstha's C.P.Ed. Course, Dhulia (Maharashtra).
25. Andhra Training College of Physical Education, Vijayawada.
26. Allagappa Chettiar College of Physical Education, Karaikudi (South India).
27. Maruthi College of Physical Education, Coimbatore (South India).
28. Government College of Physical Education, Trivandrum (Travancore Cochin).

29. Government College of Physical Education, Kozhikode (South India).
30. Lakshmbai College of Physical Education, Gwalior, (M.P.). Established in 1957 by the Union Ministry of Education, Government of India.
31. University of Kalyani (W. Bengal).
32. Training Institute for Physical Education, C/o Citizen's Education Society, Hanuman Nagar, Nagpur - 3.
33. Shareerik Shikshan Mahavidyalaya, C/o Kreedha Mandal, Umred Road, Near College of Science, Nagpur-3.
34. Maharashtra Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, C/o Residential High School, Ahmednagar (Maharashtra).
35. Shri Shivaji Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, C/o Shri Shivaji Education Society, Amravati.
36. Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, C/o Shri Saraswati Bhuwan Education Society, Aurangabad (Maharashtra).
37. Jeevan Kreedha Mandal's C.P.Ed. Course, Jalgaon, C/o E.K. Maratha Prasarak Co-operative Samaj Ltd., Jalgaon (Maharashtra).
38. Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, Malvan, C/o Akhil Maharashtra S.S. Mandal's Branch, Malvan, Distt. Ratnagiri (Maharashtra).
39. Lokmanya Tilak Shareerik Shikshan Sanstha, C/o Ambabai Talim Sanstha, Miraj, Distt. Sangli (Maharashtra).
40. Nagpur Shareerik Shikshan Mahavidyalaya, C/o Kreedha Mandal, Mahal, Nagpur (Maharashtra).
41. Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, C/o Maharatha High School, Shivaji Nagar, Nasik (Maharashtra).
42. C.P.Ed. Institute, Osmanabad, C/o College of Education, Osmanabad (Maharashtra).
43. C.P.Ed. (External) Course, C/o Maharashtratriya Mandal, Tilak Road, Poona-2.
44. C.P.Ed. Institute, Tasgaon, C/o Tasgaon High School, Tasgaon, Distt. Sangli (Maharashtra).
45. C.P.Ed. Institute, Sholapur, Magas Samaj Seva Mandal, Nehru Nagar, Sholapur (Maharashtra).
46. C.P.Ed. Institute, Poona Depressed Class Mission Society, C/o Mahatma Phule, H.S. Poona (Maharashtra).
47. C.P.Ed. Institute, Sawara, Shri Maharudra Education Society, Sawara, Distt. Akola (Maharashtra).
48. Government College of Physical Education, Bangalore.
49. Y.M.C.A. School of Physical Education, Bangalore.
50. College of Physical Education, Opposite L.G. Hospital, Maninagar, Ahmedabad-8.
51. Seth C.N. Vyayam Vidya Bhawan, Ambawadi-6, Ahmedabad (Gujarat).

(B) A Directory of Physical Education Institutions in India has been compiled by the Lakshmbai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior, on the eve of its Silver Jubilee, as desired by the Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, New Delhi. For this purpose the L.N.C.P.E., Gwalior, contacted 100 physical education institutions in the country, as per the list available at the College in September 1980. Only 56 colleges responded to its attempt and these are listed here for ready reference.

1. Adhyapan Padvika Prashikshan Mahavidyalaya, Yavatamal, Maharashtra.
2. Alagappa College of Physical Education, Karaikudi.

3. Bharatiya Sharirik Shikshan Mahavidyalaya (H.V.P. Mandal's) Amravati.
4. B.P.C.A.'s College of Physical Education, Wadala, Bombay.
5. Chandrashekhar Agashe College of Physical Education, Pune.
6. Chhotubhai Purani Vyayam Mahavidyalaya, Rajpipla (Gujarat).
7. College of Physical Education, Ahmedabad.
8. College of Physical Education, Bhilad, Gujarat.
9. College of Physical Education, Gulbarga-2.
10. Christian College of Physical Education, Lucknow.
11. Department of Physical Education, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi-5.
12. Department of Physical Education, Punjab University, Chandigarh.
13. Department of Physical Education, Kalyani University, Kalyani.
14. Department of Physical Education, Kurukshetra University, Haryana.
15. Department of Physical Education, Jabalpur University, Jabalpur.
16. Gopal College of Physical Education, Anchihalli.
17. Government College of Physical Education, Cuttack.
18. Government College of Physical Education, Hyderabad (AP).
19. Government College of Physical Education, Jodhpur.
20. Government College of Physical Education, Kozhikode, Kerala.
21. Government College of Physical Education, Naseembagh, Srinagar (Kashmir).
22. Government College of Physical Education, Kandivali, Maharashtra.
23. Government College of Health & Physical Education, Patna (Bihar).
24. Government Women Physical Training College, Pendra.
25. H.V.P. Mandal's Junior College of Education, Amravati.
26. Jadavpur Vidyapith College of Education, Jadavpur.
27. Kranti Smriti Jr. College of Physical Education, Satara (Maharashtra).
28. Lakshmbai National College of Physical Education, Gwalior (M.P.).
29. Laxmibai Vyayam Mandir College of Physical Education, Jhansi.
30. Lucknow Christian College, Lucknow.
31. M.S. Mandal's College of Physical Education, Aurangabad.
32. M.V.A.S. College of Physical Education, Dharwad.
33. Nikhil Banga Sikshan Mahavidyalaya, Bishnupur, West Bengal.
34. Post-Graduate Training College for Physical Education, Banipur.
35. Government College of Physical Education, Patiala.
36. Rashtriya Adhyapak Vidyalaya, Hanuman Nagar, Nagpur.
37. Regional College of Physical Education, Panisagar, Tripura.
38. Shaheed Kanshi Ram College of Physical Education, Kharar, Punjab.
39. Sheth C.N. Vyayam Vidyabhavan, Ahmedabad.
40. Sheth Ratilal Gosalia Adhyapak Vidyalaya, Miraj.
41. Shree H.V.P. Mandal's Degree College of Physical Education, Amravati.
42. Shri Gandhi Smarak College of Physical Education, Jaunpur (U.P.).
43. Shri K. Venkatapatheppa College of Physical Education, Chickballapur.
44. Shri Shivaji College of Education, Faculty of Physical Education, Amravati.
45. Shri Swami Vivekanand Shikshan Sanstha's Junior College of Education, Osmanabad.

46. Smt. Manekba Vyayam Vidyabhavan, Adalaj, Gujarat.
47. Silver Jubilee College of Physical Education, Malladihalli, Karnataka.
48. Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya, Maruti College of Physical Education, Coimbatore.
49. S.S.R. Government College of Physical Education, Eluru, Hyderabad.
50. State Institute of Physical Education for Women, Calcutta.
51. Tantya Tope State College of Physical Education, Shivpuri (M.P.).
52. Tirhut College of Physical Education, Muzaffarpur, Patna.
53. Training Institute for Physical Education, Hanuman Nagar, Nagpur.
54. University College of Physical Education, Bangalore.
55. University College of Physical Education, Mysore.
56. Y.M.C.A. College of Physical Education, Bangalore.

(C) The following is a list of 37 Physical Education Institutions which are not included in the above list:

1. Arya Kanya Vyayam Mahavidyalaya, Post Itola, Distt. Baroda (Gujarat).
2. Mrs. C.H. College of Physical Education, Surendranagar, Saurashtra-363 001 (Gujarat).
3. A.C.P. Vyayam Mahavidyalaya, Bharuch, Broach-392 001 (Gujarat).
4. Benyon-Smith College of Physical Education, Belgaum (Karnataka).
5. Shri R.G.V. College of Physical Education, B.R.T. Colony, Channagiri Taluk, Dist. Shimoga (Karnataka).
6. Municipal College of Physical Education, Kandavara, Chikballapur-562 101 (Karnataka).
7. College of Physical Education, Malladihalli (Karnataka).
8. College of Physical Education, Bijapur-586 101 (Karnataka).
9. Sathya Sai College of Physical Education, Kushalnagar-571 234 (Karnataka).
10. Head of the Deptt. of Physical Education, Ravishankar University, Raipur (M.P.).
11. Citizen Education Society's Training Institute of Physical Education, Hanuman Nagar, Nagpur-3 (Maharashtra).
12. Maharashtra Junior College of Education, Ahmednagar (Maharashtra).
13. Shri Samarath Vyayam Mandir, Junior College of Education, Dadar, Bombay (Maharashtra).
14. S.S.V.P. Sanstha's Aghav Adhyapak Vidyalaya, Dhulia-424 001 (Maharashtra).
15. New Education Society's Junior College of Education, New Mahadwar Road, Petala-Kolhapur-2 (Maharashtra).
16. Kreedha Mandal Nagpur Shareerik Shikshan Mahavidyalaya, Nagpur-440 001 (Maharashtra).
17. Nagar Samaj Seva Mandal's Shri Shivaji Junior College of Education, Nehru Nagar, Sholapur (Maharashtra).
18. Sane Guruji Vidya Prabodhini Junior College of Education Khiroda, Distt. Jalgaon (Maharashtra).
19. Junior College of Education, Jalgaon (Maharashtra).
20. Maharashtra Shareerik Shikshan Vidyalaya, C/o Residential High School, Ahmednagar-414 001 (Maharashtra).
21. College of Physical Education, Khadkeswar (Hotel Sarai), Aurangabad-431 001 (M.S.).

22. Shareerik Shikshan Mahavidyalaya, C/o Malva Taluka Education Society, Islamabad, Sangli (M.S.).
23. Lokmanya Tilak Shareerik Shikshan Sanstha, C/o Ambabai Talim Sanstha, Miraj-416 410 (M.S.).
24. C.P. Education Institute, C/o College of Education, Osmanabad-413 501 (M.S.).
25. HDED College of Physical Education, Yeotmal-445 001 (M.S.).
26. C.P. Education Institute, Nagar Samaj Seva Mandal, Nehrunagar, Sholapur-413 001 (Maharashtra).
27. S.P. Education Institute, Shikshan Vidyalaya, C/o S.P. College, Poona-411 001 (Maharashtra).
28. C.P. Education Institute of Physical Education, Yeotmal-445 001 (Maharashtra).
29. College of Physical Education, Vivekanand Adhyapak Vidyalaya, Satara-415 001 (Maharashtra).
30. Jijamata Shikshan Prasarak Mandal's Yashwant Junior College of Education, Buldana Distt. (Maharashtra).
31. S.S. Mandal's College of Education, Barsi, Distt. Solapur (M.S.).
32. C.P. Education Institute of Physical Education, Kolhapur-416 001 (M.S.).
33. YMCA College of Physical Education, Barabathi Stadium, Cuttack-753 005 (Orissa).
34. YMCA College of Physical Education, Nandanam, Madras-600 038 (T.N.).
35. Govt. College of Physical Education, Rampur-244 901 (U.P.).
36. State College of Physical Education (For Women), Allahabad, (Uttar Pradesh).
37. Union Christian College of Physical Education, Behrampur, Distt. Murshidabad (W.B.).

(D) The following is the Statewise break-up of 93 Institutions of Physical Education in India:

| S. No. | State | No. of Institutions |
|--------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1. | Andhra Pradesh | 2 |
| 2. | Bihar | 2 |
| 3. | Gujarat | 8 |
| 4. | Haryana | 1 |
| 5. | Jammu and Kashmir | 1 |
| 6. | Karnataka | 14 |
| 7. | Kerala | 1 |
| 8. | Madhya Pradesh | 5 |
| 9. | Maharashtra | 36 |
| 10. | Orissa | 2 |
| 11. | Punjab | 3 |
| 12. | Rajasthan | 1 |
| 13. | Tamil Nadu | 3 |
| 14. | Tripura | 1 |
| 15. | Uttar Pradesh | 7 |
| 16. | West Bengal | 6 |
| Total | | 93 |

Note: It is just possible that more institutions might be existing which are not covered by the above lists. Scrutiny of them will also suggest which institutions have become defunct and which have been newly established.

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Agricultural Universities in India

N. L. Bhale

INTRODUCTION

Agriculture in our country has always remained a way of life and means of earning livelihood; but paradoxically enough, agricultural education enjoyed low social status because of the widespread obsessing belief that agriculture was a profession needing only brawn and not brain. Organised instructions for agriculture in India began at the turn of this century when five Agricultural Colleges were established at Pune, Kanpur, Sabour, Nagpur and Coimbatore offering diploma course. After a decade and a half, these institutions were upgraded to the degree level. Fresh impetus and orientation were given to agriculture after the formation of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research in 1929 as a result of recommendation by the Royal Commission on Agriculture. The earliest Postgraduate courses were offered towards the early 20's and it was about 1930 that the Postgraduate classes and institutions secured recognition from traditional Universities for imparting training at M.Sc. (Agri.) and Ph.D. levels in agriculture. At the time of independence, there were 17 agricultural institutions with an enrolment capacity of about 1500 students, including 160 post-graduates. The quantum of efforts generated and initial investment made in agricultural education, however, were microscopic as compared to magnitude and diversity of the problems faced in this field.

Initially, agricultural education was closely linked with the available Government jobs. Planned development of agriculture through five-year plans suddenly raised the demand for agricultural graduates, resulting in a phenomenal rise in the number of colleges during the post-independence decade. Pressure of political, regional interest, rising population and the resultant food problem compelled Government to pay greater attention to agricultural research and education. An index of Government interest in agricultural research and education can be judged from the increase in the number of agricultural colleges and outlay on agriculture from the first to sixth five year plans. Increase in resources is necessary but proper utilisation

of the limited available resources is of no less importance. With a modest investment of about Rs. 20 crores in the second five-year plan, it has now reached Rs. 425 crores in the sixth five-year plan, which is almost a 21-fold increase. The phenomenal increase in the number of traditional pattern colleges, not keeping pace with the changing requirements of our agriculture failed to pay the expected dividends commensurate to the huge investment made in this field. The increase in post-graduate colleges was 10 times (5 in 1951 to 51 in 1981) in agriculture and 23 times (1 in 1954 to 23 in 1981) in Veterinary during the last three decades (1954 to 1983). Consequently, almost 25 to 30 per cent of the graduates invariably go for post-graduation. Such disproportionate quantitative growth with little relevance of education to the needs of the country failed to produce the desired increase in agricultural production. On the one hand, there was no relationship between education and research although both were managed by the same Department of Agriculture which was entrusted with the responsibility of increasing agricultural production and directly responsible to ensure maximum transfer of improved agricultural technology to the farmer's field. Agricultural Colleges remained mere teaching institutes. The production technology developed did not keep pace with the fast changing requirements of the country and also remained within the four walls of the research institute/laboratory.

At this juncture a major step for the improvement of higher education was taken by the Government of India by appointment of University Education Commission (1948) with the late Dr. Radhakrishnan, later President of India as Chairman, to examine the status of university education and recommend steps for its improvement. The University Education Commission in its report remarked that the country's position in regard to food was pathetic and stressed the need for proper agricultural research and training suitable personnel at various levels for meeting the challenging problems posed by agriculture in the country. Admitting weaknesses on traditional education system and urgent need to link agricultural education with production, the Commission suggested the concept of "Rural University" in 1950 which provided the germ for the idea that led to the establishment of Agricultural Universities in India.

The Government of India appointed a joint Indo-American Team headed by Dr. Parker in 1954 to make a comparative study of the institutions dealing with agricultural education and research in India as compared to U.S.A. and to make recommendations for their improvement. The team submitted its report in 1955 and recommended *inter-alia* the adoption of the pattern of higher education on the basis of experience gained in the Land Grant Colleges of U.S.A. This recommendation led to the establishment of Agricultural Universities in India. As a result of the recommendations of the first Indo-American Team, the then existing Agricultural and

Veterinary Colleges in India were brought in 1955 into sisterhood relations with five Land Grant Institutes of U.S.A. for technical assistance.

The Government of India set up the second joint Indo-American Team under the Chairmanship of Dr. M.S. Randhawa in 1959 to review the work that had been done as a result of the first Indo-American Team and to have specific proposals for the development of agricultural education in the third five-year plan (1961-66). The joint Indo-American Team submitted its report in the year 1960.

The Government of India appointed a Committee headed by Dr. Ralph W. Cummings to advise State Governments on legislation for the establishment of Agricultural Universities. The main idea was that the new Agricultural Universities should have the essential features that are characteristic of the system and that they have a uniform base to carry on the functions with which they were charged. The report spelt out the distinctive features of an Agricultural University, compared with the existing traditional universities and provided guidelines for their development. Based on these, the I.C.A.R. developed a Model Act for Agricultural Universities. Simultaneously, the first Agricultural University modeled after the Land Grant system of U.S.A. was set up in Uttar Pradesh at Pantnagar in 1960. This was an important milestone in the establishment and development of the State Agricultural Universities.

An Agricultural Research Review Team was formed in 1963 to make an overall review of agricultural administration, research, education and extension. The team consisting of experts from U.S.A., U.K. and India reviewed the action taken on the recommendations of the two joint Indo-American Teams and suggested to reconstitute the I.C.A.R. as an effective central agency for coordinating, directing and promoting agricultural research and education in the country. The Education Commission in 1964 advised the establishment of at least one Agricultural University in each State.

No other system of education has undergone such a tremendous educational reform as agricultural education during the last two decades in our country. The changes that have occurred during the past could conveniently be classified in three phases of development :

- (1) Prior to Independence (upto 1947).
- (2) Pre-Agricultural Universities era (after Independence, i.e. 1947 to 1960).
- (3) Post-Agricultural Universities status (1960 onwards).

Prior to independence the traditional universities followed the British system of education in the liberal arts, humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, including agriculture, through colleges run by the State Government. Since Agricultural/Veterinary colleges were affiliated to different

conventional universities, the academic bodies of these universities prescribed the programme, called syllabus, with the assistance of a few outside experts. The teachers handling the degree programme were not directly involved in framing the syllabus. The evaluation of students was made by an external examiner at the end of each academic year, for which University appointed examiners from outside the College/University. The syllabus was largely theoretical. Physical facilities like cultivable land, livestock, laboratory equipment and library facilities were inadequate and varied widely. In addition to the fact that the teachers were marginally involved in curriculum, these colleges remained merely teaching institutions without any research and extension education responsibility, although these activities were handled and administered by the same State Department of Agriculture.

The duration of undergraduate degree in agriculture fluctuated not only in terms of years of professional programme but also pre-University education. For instance, a few States like Uttar Pradesh had a duration of two years for undergraduate in agriculture after 12 years of pre-University education, whereas other States had either five-year degree programme after 10 years or four years degree programme after 11 years of pre-University education. The course content of the programme amongst different Universities also varied considerably.

Antiquated farming practices transcending from generation to generation and theoretical education without any practical bias offered in traditional colleges, failed to meet the demands of feeding millions of men, women and children of independent India. This could not be achieved by administrative fiat and by proliferation of staff at the Centre, State or on the field level; nor can dramatic results be achieved by construction of a few massive irrigation projects or establishment of outsized State Farms and huge imports of fertilizers. These can make the expected impact on agricultural production only when adequate and efficient extension education programmes backed by a regular flow of new profitable and feasible technology from problem-oriented research. Higher agricultural production can only be achieved through use of highly rewarded inputs which must arise from adaptive and operational research carried out by the devoted scientists, who are trained for the purpose in well-organised institutes of agricultural education.

Agricultural Universities are mainly concerned with all the aspects of enriching, disseminating and supplying knowledge related to agriculture, including basic as well as applied research. The primary emphasis on teaching or research related to socio-economic problems of the countryside by developing appropriate technology to build up rural economy. The Agricultural Universities provide an organic link between teaching and research, on the one hand, and extension education programme to meet

the needs and aspirations of millions of farmers, on the other. Educational reforms transforming the traditional system of education to Agricultural Universities is unique of its kind in our country. No other system of education has undergone such a radical and rational change in the history of education in India.

In the light of preceding discussion, certain broad queries peep in mind such as (1) what type of educational reforms have taken place in various Agricultural Universities in India; (2) what was the duration of these reforms, i.e. whether they were transitory or perpetual; (3) what were the after-effects of these reforms; (4) what type of sources have a role in bringing out these reforms; (5) were there any differences in the nature of educational reforms that have occurred in the Agricultural Universities in India. To answer these questions, this study entitled, "A Case Study of Agricultural Universities in India" was undertaken.

FINDINGS

An attempt has been made in the present investigation to probe into the detailed functioning of Agricultural Universities in India. The information from 23 Agricultural Universities and 84 constituent Agricultural Colleges throughout the country was sought for this purpose. In order to have a precise, concise and relevant information regarding the functioning of Agricultural Universities, a battery of an objective-oriented questionnaire was prepared and mailed. Although the response was not very encouraging since only 20 questionnaires duly filled in were received, they were sufficiently representative to generalise the conclusions. The findings of the present investigation are epitomized hereunder.

Most of the Agricultural Universities and Colleges clearly stated that their major objectives were education, research and extension education. Similarly, a majority of them indicated that there was a shift in the educational pattern from traditional to internal evaluation system, i.e., trimester/semester. As regards admission to Agricultural Colleges, a majority of the Universities stated that they are admitting students to the colleges after successfully completing the 12th standard and degree programme was of 4 year's education. A substantial number of Universities mentioned that the research carried out in their University is mainly of applied and operational nature. Very few of them also indicated that they are conducting fundamental/basic research. In most of the Agricultural Universities, the Directorate of Extension Education operated and there was a close collaboration and coordination with various Departments of Agriculture.

With regard to the initiators contributing to educational reforms, it was observed that heightened educational circumstances were ranked first as the most cause for bringing out educational reforms followed by political and

regional influence and a healthy linkage between farmers, research workers and educationists respectively. The data further highlighted that the educationists and the administrators were trying source for bringing about educational reforms, which were observed to be lasting long. Situational factors and farmers too, appear to have had a profound influence in this behalf.

It was further seen that these reforms have resulted in the generation of additional employment as well as have contributed to the establishing of additional educational institutes. Few of the Universities have opined that it had a direct bearing on the use of modern agricultural technology on a greater scale and have also contributed to the reforms in the social and cultural milieu. One of the objectives of the present quest was to comprehend the salient features of the accomplishments achieved, as a consequence of educational reforms, which lucidly illustrated that education has become more and more pragmatic, has led to the proliferation of new improved agricultural technology and has brought about a phenomenal increase in agricultural production.

Some of the institutes cited that their institutes were appraised for examining the developments by I.C.A.R., some private agencies and learned farmers in the respective region. Further, it was apparent from the pertinent data that the developments taken place have specifically resulted in upgrading the standard of education and research ultimately beneficial to the farming community. Almost all the Universities have quoted that they have achieved their cherished goals and have ascribed the following factors for the accomplishments: they are greater emphasis on applied research, need-based education in gainful employment, a strong network of extension education service in terms of sound and live liaison with farmers and availability of qualified and experienced staff for teaching. It could also be perused that factors like adoption of appropriate courses—curriculum, follow-up action, dedication, sincerity and probity of the staff, spontaneous active involvement of scientists, students and farmers in the research and extension programmes, effective coordination amongst different agencies, meticulous management and administration have ultimately led to achieving the desired objectives.

A majority of the Universities have cited that educational reforms have enabled the students to move in various walks of life and have inculcated the spirit of patriotism and secularism. The respondents clearly showed that the educational reforms have brought about the following alterations in the educational system in vogue such as exploration of new techniques, devices and methods of teaching to enhance teaching—the learning process—have assisted periodic evaluation of the students through the internal evaluation system and have contributed to the building up the personality of the students

through participation in extra-mural activities like N.S.S., N.C.C., educational tours, debates, social clubs etc. It has also reflected in enhanced laboratory, field and library facilities. It was further delineated that there has been a generation of new knowledge and expertise through the launching of various projects and schemes sponsored by I.C.A.R., Government, U.G.C. and other agencies.

It was also noticed that these educational reforms have certain deteriorating undesirable facets like indulgence in stereotype teaching, propensity towards favouritism while evaluating the students, development of apathy in students to utilise library facilities, etc.

Most of the Universities have affirmed that they were satisfied with the present educational system. However, some of them which were discontented have put forth specific measures for its amelioration. They are : introduction of a mix of internal and external evaluation system having an in-built mechanism for developing the originality and creativity of the students. In regard to ascribing the variables for meeting failure, only two institutes out of those selected seemed to have given thought to the issue of enunciating variables like cent percent reliance on internal assessment, biased grading system and coverage of the limited course curriculum, intimidation of the teachers by the students and parents for obtaining higher grades, lack of comprehensive understanding of the subject by the students.

In connection with the fullest exploitation of available natural resources, it was stated that they have been utilised fully. The fullest exploitation of natural resources was specifically in the areas like crop production, agro-forestry, horticulture and animal husbandry. Most of the Universities have agreed that the educational reforms have upgraded the intelligence, efficiency and competence through proper development of course-curriculum, research system and administration.

It was further highlighted that a major portion of the Agricultural Universities were offering diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate courses, by introducing and strengthening new faculties. A majority of the Agricultural Universities were offering courses leading to B.Sc. (Agri.), M.Sc. (Agri.), Ph.D., Agricultural Engineering, Home Science, Fisheries and Veterinary, whereas a few Universities are offering degree courses in Agricultural Technology (Food Sciences). The data in relevant tables indicated that pre-agri-University era (1921-60) was characterised by less qualified staff engaged in teaching and research. Contrary to this, the post-Agricultural University era was marked by more qualified but inadequate staff. Further, it was conspicuous that there was a direct link between theory and practicals and the field problems of the farming community during the post-Agricultural Universities era.

The attitudes of undergraduate, postgraduate and diploma students were oriented towards working with farmers favourably in a majority of the Universities. Secondly, it was also observed that teaching and research functions of the Universities have a direct bearing on the needs and aspirations of the rural society.

Most of the Universities have established academic and collaborative research linkages with national and international institutes as well as agro-based industries in the country. Data pertaining to the motivation of the students to take up farming on their own and developing professional confidence to be self-employed manifested that a majority of the Universities staff and students were motivated to enter into farming and found to be competent in knowledge and technical abilities.

It was heartening to note that most of the Universities organise specialised training programmes regularly for the benefit of the farmers. The specialised areas include crop production, animal and poultry management, maintenance of tractors, sprayers and other farm implements, fisheries, horticulture, dryland technology etc. Greater attention was paid to the continuous and concerted research on the problems of land development, irrigation and water management, crop processing and storage, farm mechanization and agricultural shop jobs and other engineering works.

As regards feedback, every University was observed to have had a strong in-built mechanism between the scientist and the farmers. Most of the Universities encourage participation of faculty members in agricultural extension education programmes. A strong bond of Agricultural Universities with the State Department of Agriculture, Zilla Parishad and other related agencies was observed in a majority of Universities. They have further added that the linkages referred above were quite satisfactory at the State and district level. But linkages at the operational level (village) were alarmingly poor. Perusal of the data in pertinent tables further indicated that the diploma holders were absorbed in agro-based firms, whereas degree and postgraduate students in teaching, research, banking institutes, dairy development corporation, etc. It was enlightening to observe that education imparted at the diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate levels was in consonance with the requirements of the agro-based industries in most of the Universities.

DISCUSSION

The present study entitled "A Case Study of Agricultural Universities in India" was undertaken with the volition of having a comprehensive understanding of the strides made by the various Agricultural Universities in India in the vital spheres of teaching, research and extension education—an inseparable trinity. The specific objectives of the investigation are as under :

- (1) What types of educational reforms have taken place in the various Agricultural Universities in India?
- (2) What was the duration of these reforms, i.e., whether they were transitory or perpetuating?
- (3) What were the after-effects of these reforms?
- (4) What type of sources have a role in bringing about these reforms?
- (5) Were there any differences in the nature of educational reforms that have occurred in Agricultural Universities in India?

A detailed questionnaire was framed in the light of the meditated objectives. All the 23 Agricultural Universities located at various places in India were chosen and accordingly the questionnaires were mailed. However, after constant persuasion through reminders, of the 23 Agricultural Universities, only 12 from different states responded which account for 50% which is quite adequate and satisfactory to draw conclusions from. Thus, the findings emerged from the present study are discussed briefly below.

It was discernible from the relevant data that almost all the Agricultural Universities under study have vehemently stated that they are attaching equitable importance to the triad of teaching, research and extension education —the *sine qua non* elements for putting rural development on a sound footing. Thus, it may be inferred that the Universities were quite aware of these three wings of rural development and hence may be described to be moving on the right path.

It was very interesting to note that most of the Universities were dynamic in restructuring and remodelling the overall educational system to inculcate a sense of civilization, wisdom and pragmatism among students to move in various walks of life successfully. This way of action was in consonance with the precious views expressed by the renowned educationists 100 years back. With regard to the admission of students in colleges, nearly all the Universities were following a uniform pattern of admission, i.e. 10 + 2 + 4. This indicates that at the national level there is close coordination and exchange of thoughts and opinion among the various Agricultural Universities. As regards the nature of research carried out, it was noticed that it was of applied and adaptive nature rather than theoretical. This is what is in fact required by the agricultural research to enrich the life of the farming community. Similarly, the extension machinery was observed to be very strong and dynamic enough to induce the farmers to adopt innovations in agriculture at a faster rate by establishing the Directorate of Extension coupled with close coordination and collaboration with various developing agencies.

One of the objectives of the study was to know the initiators for bringing about educational reforms and it was reported that heightened educational

circumstances, educationists, research workers, farmers and situational factors contributed the most. On the basis of the above findings, it can be adduced that the farmers were too keen to ameliorate the stature of education along with the educationists and researchers, which is a very optimistic observation. The educational reforms brought about designedly were perpetuating and therefore, might have led to the generation of enhanced employment, creation of additional educational institutes, nurturing of social and cultural milieu.

It was very dismal to note that the educational reforms had to some extent deleterious effects in terms of cropping up of the stereotype teaching, inclination of teachers towards favouritism. It is, therefore, felt that there is an urgent need to have an exercise of introspection by teachers, students and the administrators in order to curb these detrimental effects. It is well-known that evaluation is the part and parcel of the various stages of programme, planning and implementation in any sphere of activity. In the light of these, it was observed that very few of the Universities were subjected to appraisal by the institutes like I.C.A.R., private agencies etc. It was further shown that these developments have specifically resulted in upgrading the status of education and research, ultimately advantageous to the students and the farmers. In view of the negligible appraisal by the aforesaid institutes of Agricultural Universities, it is imperative to extend such appraisals to other Agricultural Universities also in order to examine the achievements in terms of the cherished objectives and to suggest remedies thereon.

Information pertaining to the factors contributing to the desired success of the Universities revealed that aspects like adoption of appropriate course, curriculum, follow-up action, dedication, sincerity and probity of the staff, active involvement of scientists, students and farmers in the research and extension programmes, effective coordination among different agencies, meticulous management and administration were some of the factors leading to the success. This apparently reflects in the conclusion that education has not remained only pedagogic but also had become more and more utilitarian, embracing various facets of life. It also indicates the responsiveness of the concerned.

It is also evident that there was a strong bond of the Agricultural Universities with national and international institutes and agro-based industries. This further might have facilitated creating avenues of employment for the students of the Universities. Secondly, it can also be implied that this might have acted as a feedback for research based on the field problems of the farmers.

It was conspicuously observed that students were certainly motivated for going in, on their own, for farming by virtue of education, but owing

to other plethora of factors, such as situational, infrastructural, economic, social and cultural, they may be compelled to have an alienation from their own farming.

As far as the linkages between Universities and State, regional and village level agencies are concerned, they were good enough at State and regional level but lamentably poor at the village level. This finding needs to be given a deep thought and efforts should be directed to strengthen the linkages at grass root level which is the pivot of all development programmes.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A case study of Agricultural Universities in India has yielded very interesting results. The salient features of the same are summarised below.

It can be concluded that most of the Agricultural Universities were placing equal emphasis on the trio of teaching, research and extension education functions. They were also very scrupulous about the renaissance of overall educational system capable of producing civility, wisdom and practical way of living. In vogue was the uniform pattern of 10+2+4 in most of the Universities for admitting students. In almost all the Agricultural Universities, prior to the ushering in of any research project, its feasibility and adaptability aspects were in sharp focus. Simultaneously, the extension front of almost all the Universities was found to be full-fledged. The extension service of the Universities and a multitude of other developmental agencies were in consonance with each other. It was further witnessed that elements like heightened educational circumstances, educationists, research workers, farmers and situation had a substantial share in bringing about educational reforms. These reforms were persistent in nature and were the source of increased employment, establishment of additional educational institutes and flourishing cultural and social milieu. These reforms too exercised some deleterious effects the off-shoot of which were monotony in teaching and favouritism. It was further conclusive that a very limited number of institutes had undergone appraisal by the competent institutes like I.C.A.R., certain private agencies, etc. The assessment connoted that the educational reforms have elevated the status of education and research. Adoption of relevant course- curriculum, follow-up action, devotion, sincerity and probity of the staff, active participation of the researchers, students and farmers in research and extension, efficient coordination among different agencies, prudent and farsighted management and administration-these galaxy of factors acted as harbingers for the designed accomplishments. Intimate linkages of most of the Universities with national, international institutes and agro-based industries was another characteristic feature of the study.

The ultimate attainment expected of education is the introduction of desirable changes in human behaviour and accordingly students from almost all the Agricultural Universities were keen to enter into their own farming but situational, infrastructural, economic, social and cultural impediments have restrained them from doing so, it was observed. The ties of the Universities with State and regional level agencies were better but it was a weak link pertaining to the village level linkages, it was perspicacious. In a nutshell, it can be said that the study had embraced the prime objectives with which it was undertaken.

IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

In the light of the findings, the following implications may be taken note of by the teachers, administrators and students.

1. History bespeaks that in fact demagogues are the real accelerators for the welfare and development of any society and for that educational reform is the first and foremost pre-requisite, but in the present study demagogues were not reported to be the initiators of educational change and hence it is suggested to imbibe this spirit of significance of educational reforms in the demagogues by the rigorous training to them by the Agricultural Universities.
2. In order to nip in the bud the undesirable effects of the educational reforms in terms of routinised teaching, bent of mind towards favouritism while evaluating the studies, it is recommended that a new device of educational pattern in terms of combination of internal and external examination system should be contrived. So also some incentive in terms of petty monetary or non-monetary rewards to devoted, good teachers may be given and for that a code of exemplary teaching may be prepared. Simultaneously, teachers who indulge in favouritism while grading students should also be suitably castigated in order to prevent them from indulging in favouritism.
3. Agricultural Universities should constantly pursue the process of getting periodically assessed by the recognised institutes like I.C.A.R. and the like to review the progress made and alter the programme in the light of flaws observed.
4. In order to foil the impact of agricultural education to prepare the students to do their own farming, situational, infrastructural, economic, social and cultural constraints should be attempted to be removed.
5. Lastly, it is strongly recommended to strengthen the operational level linkages with the Universities.

ANNEXURE I

A CASE STUDY OF "AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITIES IN INDIA"

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name of Institution
2. Year of Establishment
3. Major objectives of the Institution :
 - (1) Educational
 - (2) Research
 - (3) Extension Education
4. Do you think that there have been changes since 1921 in the overall educational pattern in Agr. Colleges in conventional and later Agr. Universities in the State?

YES/NO

If yes,

5. What sort of educational changes did you observe?

- (a) Change in educational pattern

Year of
commencement

- (i) Traditional
- (ii) Trimester
- (iii) Semester

- (b) Admissions to the Agr. Colleges :

- (i) 10 + 4
- (ii) 10 + 2 + 3
- (iii) 10 + 2 + 4
- (iv) Others (specify)

- (c) Research

- (i) Fundamental/Basic
- (ii) Applied
- (iii) Adaptive
- (iv) Operational

- (d) Extension education :

- (i) Administrative pattern
- (ii) Specialised changes in functioning.

6. In your opinion, who are the initiators to contribute for educational reforms?

- (i) Social
- (ii) Environmental
- (iii) Regional
- (iv) Political
- (v) Heightened educational circumstances
- (vi) Any other (specify)

7. Indicate the instigators for initiating the above mentioned educational reforms :

- (i) Educationists
- (ii) Administrators

- (iii) Demagogues
- (iv) Students
- (v) Situation
- (vi) Farmers
- (vii) Any other

8. Whether the educational reforms which you witnessed were lasting long or were of transitory nature.

- (i) Traditional system
- (ii) Trimester
- (iii) Semester

Temporal
existence

9. As a consequence of reforms, what did you observe in terms of :

- (i) Social and cultural milieu
- (ii) Economic implications
- (iii) Generation of additional employment
- (iv) Creation of additional educational institutes

10. Enlist the salient features of accomplished achievements as a result of educational reforms.

- (i) Specific objectives
- (ii) Expected changes
- (iii) Phases adapted for reaching the objectives
- (iv) Actual accomplishment reached

11. Has any agency attempted to apprise your institution in respect of development?

YES/NO

If yes,

What specific conclusions did they arrive at

- (1)
- (2)
- (3)
- (4)
- (5)

12. Do you consider that the institute has achieved the objectives with which it was started?

YES/NO

If yes,

In your opinion what are the factors contributing to the success.

- (1)
- (2)
- (3)
- (4)
- (5)

13. Do you feel that educational reforms enabled the students to move in various walks of life in a successful way?

YES/NO

14. Do you think that the present educational reforms had an inbuilt mechanism to build up the spirit of patriotism and secularism in addition to academic excellence?

YES/NO

15. What changes do you observe as a result of educational reforms in following ?

- (1) Teaching methods and techniques
- (2) Examination system
- (3) Co-curricular activities

- (4) Field and laboratory facilities
 (5) Library facility
 (6) Generation of new knowledge and expertise
16. Are you satisfied with the present educational system? YES/NO
 If not, what improvements do you suggest?
 If not, what are the variables do you feel contributing to the failure?
 (1)
 (2)
 (3)
 (4)
 (5)
17. Have the reforms in the education led to the social parity and equality? YES/NO
18. Do you appraise that the present educational reforms has brought out the fullest exploitation of available natural resources? YES/NO
 If yes, in what areas?
 (1)
 (2)
19. Do you consider that the educational reforms have been the noble cause for upgrading the intelligence, efficiency and competence of the students? YES/NO
 (a) Course, curriculum
 (b) Examination system
 (c) Administration
 (d) Research system
 (e) Any other (specify)
20. State what diploma, U.G. and P.G. degree programmes were/are offered in pre-agriculture (1921-60) and post-agriculture era (1960 onwards).

| | Pre-agri. era 1921-60 | Post-agri. era 1960 onwards |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| (a) Agriculture | | |
| (b) Agri. Engineering | | |
| (c) Agri. Tech. | | |
| (d) Fisheries | | |
| (e) Home Science | | |
| (f) Forestry | | |
| (g) Veterinary | | |
| (h) Any other (Specify) | | |

21. State if there were/are qualified persons for undertaking teaching and research in the above faculties in the required number.

| | Pre-agri. era 1921-60 | Post-agri. era 1960 onwards |
|------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| (a) Agriculture | | |
| (b) Agril. Engineering | | |
| (c) Fisheries | | |
| (d) Forestry | | |
| (e) Any other | | |

22. Technical manpower produced with

- (a) U.G.
(b) P.G.
(c) Diploma qualification in agriculture and other related subjects

23. State if there was/is direct relevance between the practicals in the degree programme and in the field problems of the farmers.

| | <u>Pre-agri. era</u> | <u>Post-agri. era</u> |
|-----|----------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) | | |
| (2) | | |
| (3) | | |
| (4) | | |

24. Were/are the attitudes of the U.G., P.G. and Diploma students oriented towards working with farmers and in the field?

- (1) Most favourable
(2) Favourable
(3) Least favourable
(4) Not favourable

25. Were/are the teaching and research functions of the University directly linked with the needs and aspirations of rural society, state briefly?

26. Describe linkages for academic and collaborative research.

- (1) With national laboratories
(2) With agro-based industries
(3) With international institutes

27. How far the functions of (i) teaching and (ii) research are integrated with following:

| | Not much | Much | Quite much |
|--|----------|------|------------|
| (a) Farming | | | |
| (b) Social and economic needs of the farmers | | | |
| (c) Problems of the country-side | | | |

28. Are its 'products' (students) motivated to take

- (i) Farming on their own or
(ii) To be self-employed as an agril. professional with confidence in their knowledge and training in technical and related subjects

29. Does it impart specialised technical training to young people and farmers who are not candidates for degrees?
30. Is there continuous and concerted research on the problem areas in the agriculture like

| | Not much | Much | Quite much |
|--|----------|------|------------|
|--|----------|------|------------|

- | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
| (a) Land development | | | |
| (b) Irrigation and water management | | | |
| (c) Crop processing and storage | | | |
| (d) Farm mechanisation and tillage | | | |
| (e) Agri. shop-jobs and other engineering works | | | |

31. Has it developed the necessary channels and linkages for two-way flow of information between the agril. scientists and the farmers?

YES/NO

32. Does it provide opportunities for faculty members to participate in agril. extension education and demonstration programmes?

YES/NO

33. Describe briefly the village level, regional and state level linkages, the University has developed for understanding, sharing, and solving current and arousing problems in agril. between the agril. scientists and the farmers.

34. Please state how many diploma/degree/P.G. students have come out successfully.

| | Pre-agril. Uni. era | Post-agril. Uni. era |
|--|------------------------|-------------------------|
|--|------------------------|-------------------------|

(a) Diploma

(b) Degree

(c) P.G.—M.Sc.

Ph.D.

35. Please state the employment pattern of the foregoing alumni.

| Academic institu- tes | Dept.of Agril./ Banks | Agro- based firms | Dairy Dev. Corpn. | Federa- tions |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|

(a) Diploma

(b) Degree

(c) P.G.—M.Sc.

Ph.D.

36. Whether the education imparted at Diploma/U.G./P.G. programmes is in accordance with the requirements of agro-based industries?

YES/NO

Note : Please arrange to return the questionnaire duly filled in within a period of three weeks from the date of receipt to the RSVP.

ANNEXURE II

LIST OF RESPONDENTS

1. Andhra Pradesh Agricultural University, Rajendranagar, Hyderabad.
2. Assam Agricultural University, Jorhat (Assam).
3. Bidhan Chandra Krishi Vishwa Vidyalaya, Haringhatta P.O. Mohanpur, Dist. Nadia (West Bengal).
4. Birsa Agricultural University, Kanke, Ranchi (Bihar).
5. Chandra Sekhar Azad University of Agriculture & Technology, Kanpur (U.P.).
6. Gujarat Agricultural University, Dantiwada (Gujarat).
7. G.B. Pant University of Agril. & Tech., Pantnagar (U.P.).
8. Haryana Agricultural University, Hissar (Haryana).
9. Himachal Pradesh Krishi Vishwa Vidyalaya, Palampur (H.P.).
10. J.N.K.V.V., Jabalpur (M.P.).
11. Kerala Agricultural University, Vellanikara (Kerala).
12. Konkan Krishi Vidyapeeth, Dapoli (M.S.).
13. Mahatma Phule Krishi Vidyapeeth, Rahuri (M.S.).
14. Marathwada Agricultural University, Parbhani (M.S.).
15. Orissa University of Agriculture & Technology, Bhubaneswar.
16. Punjab Agril. University, Ludhiana.
17. Punjabrao Krishi Vidyapeeth, Akola (M.S.).
18. Rajendra Agril. University, Pusa, Samastipur (Bihar).
19. Tamil Nadu Agril. University, Coimbatore (TN).
20. University of Udaipur, Udaipur (Rajasthan).
21. University of Agril. Sciences, Hebbal, Bangalore.
22. Shere Kashmir University of Agril. & Tech., Srinagar.
23. Narendra Dev University of Agril. and Technology, Faizabad.
24. Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi.
25. Agriculture College, Rajendranagar, Hyderabad.
26. S.V. Agriculture College, Tirupati.
27. Agriculture College, Bapatla.
28. College of Veterinary Science, Rajendranagar, Hyderabad.
29. College of Veterinary Science, Tirupati.
30. College of Agriculture, Jorhat.
31. College of Veterinary Science, Khanapara.
32. Agriculture College, Haringhatta.
33. Veterinary College, Belgacha/Haringhatta.
34. Dairy Science College, Haringhatta.
35. Agriculture College, Cooch Behar.
36. Ranchi Agriculture College, Kanke, Ranchi.
37. Ranchi College of Veterinary Sciences & Animal Husbandry, Kanke, Ranchi.
38. U.P. Instt. of Agril. Sciences, Kanpur.
39. College of Veterinary Science, Mathura.
40. B.A. College of Agril., Anand.
41. S.M.C. College of Dairy Science, Anand.
42. Gujarat College of Vety. Science & A.H., Anand.
43. College of Agriculture, Junagadh.
44. College of Agriculture, Navsari.
45. College of Vety. Science & A.H., Dantiwada.
46. College of Agriculture, Pantnagar.
47. College of Vety. Science, Pantnagar.

48. College of Post-Graduate Studies, Pantnagar.
49. College of Agriculture, Hissar.
50. College of Agriculture, Kaul.
51. College of Vety. Science, Hissar.
52. College of Animal Science, Hissar.
53. College of Agriculture, Palampur.
54. College of Agriculture, Solan.
55. College of Agriculture, Jabalpur.
56. College of Vety. Science, Jabalpur.
57. College of Agril. Engg., Jabalpur.
58. College of Agriculture, Indore.
59. College of Agriculture, Sehare.
60. College of Agriculture, Rewa.
61. College of Agriculture, Raipur.
62. College of Agriculture, Gwalior.
63. College of Vety. Science, Mhow.
64. College of Agriculture, Vellayani, Trivandrum.
65. College of Horticulture, Vellanikara, Trichur.
66. College of Vety. & A.S., Trichur.
67. College of Agriculture, Dapoli.
68. College of Vety. Science, Parel, Bombay.
69. College of Fisheries, Ratnagiri.
70. College of Fisheries, Panangod, Cochin.
71. College of Agriculture, Pune.
72. College of Agriculture, Kolhapur.
73. College of Agriculture, Dhulia.
74. College of Agril. Engg., Rahuri.
75. Post-Graduate Agril. Institute, Rahuri.
76. College of Agriculture, Parbhani.
77. College of Veterinary & A.S., Parbhani.
78. College of Agriculture, Bhubaneswar.
79. College of Vety. Science, Bhubaneswar.
80. College of Agril. Engg., Bhubaneswar.
81. College of Fisheries, Gopalpur.
82. College of Agriculture, Chiplima.
83. College of Agriculture, Ludhiana.
84. College of Agril. Engg., Ludhiana.
85. College of Veterinary Sciences, Ludhiana.
86. College of Agriculture, Akola.
87. College of Agriculture, Nagpur.
88. Anandniketan College of Agriculture, Warora.
89. Sri Shivaji College of Agriculture, Amaravati.
90. Nagpur Veterinary College, Nagpur.
91. College of Agriculture Engineering, Akola.
92. College of Agriculture, Sabour.
93. College of Agriculture, Delhi.
94. College of Vety. Science, Patna.
95. Agriculture College, Coimbatore.
96. College of Agril. Engg., Coimbatore.
97. College of Horticulture, Coimbatore.
98. College of Vety. Science, Madras.
99. College of Agriculture, Madurai.

100. Rajasthan College of Agriculture, Udaipur.
101. College of Agriculture, Jobner, Jaipur.
102. College of Vety. Science & A.S., Bikaner.
103. College of Agriculture, Hebbal, Bangalore.
104. College of Agriculture, Dharwar.
105. College of Vety. Science, Hebbal, Bangalore.
106. College of Postgraduate Studies, Hebbal.
107. Agricultural Institute, Raichur.
108. College of Agriculture, Wadora, Sapore.
109. College of Agriculture, Kumarganj, Faizabad.

ANNEXURE III

QUESTIONNAIRE DULY FILLED IN AND RECEIVED FROM

1. Agricultural College and Research Institute, T.N.A.U., Coimbatore.
2. Rajendra Agricultural University, Bihar.
3. Post Graduate Institute, P.K.V., Akola.
4. M.L. Sukhadia Universtiy, Udaipur.
5. S.V. Agricultural College, Tirupati.
6. Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana.
7. College of Agriculture, Akola.
8. College of Agriculture, U.A.S., Dharwar.
9. Dayanand College, Ajmer.
10. Tirhur College of Agriculture, Dholi, Muzaffarpur.
11. Anand Niketan College of Agriculture, Warora.
12. University of Agricultural Sciences, Bangalore.
13. College of Horticulture, Vellanikkara, K.A.U., Trichur.
14. College of Agril. Engineering, T.N.A.U., Coimbatore.
15. Fisheries College, T.N.A.U., Tuticorin.
16. Narendra Dev University of Agri. & Tech., Faizabad, U.P.
17. Postgraduate Studies College, T.N.A.U., Coimbatore.
18. College of Horticulture, T.N.A.U., Coimbatore.
19. Agricultural College and Research Institute, T.N.A.U., Madurai.
20. Marathwada Agril. University, Parbhani.

11

Educational Reforms in Teacher Education in the State of Maharashtra (1921-1980)

Dr. Suman Prabhakar Karandikar

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The present case study is a part of the project titled "The Education Reforms in India", undertaken by the Indian Institute of Education, Pune. The case study refers to the educational reforms in Teacher Education from 1920 to 1980. The following paragraphs describe (1) the rationale of the project, (2) the need for the case study, (3) the scope and the limitations and (4) the significance of the study.

Rationale of the total project

The total project attempts to study the educational reforms in all the major fields and sub-fields of the formal and non-formal education system of the country. The interval specified for the educational reforms is from the year 1920 to the year 1980.

In order to present the relation of the case study to the entire project, it is essential to mention the major considerations that have created the need of the study of educational reforms.

All those who move in any of the developmental fields of life know that in India the participation of citizens is comparatively very low in almost all the areas dealing with development. This inadequate participation rate has adversely affected our planned development. Our plans find it very difficult to bring about the change in the people's involvement in the developmental tasks. This is a major factor which is a cause of so many other social, economic and political evils; all these evils together control the pace of development of Indian society in the desired direction. These observations are reiterated now and again. However, what must be done so as to break the vicious circle resulting out of indifference of people, and how to speed up the developmental tasks is a challenge. To undertake the

responsibility to increase participation of people in the various activities, one must master the things such as when, why, to what extent, under what social, economic and political environment, people are ready to work. To master the dynamics of public response to developmental tasks, some basic exercise needs to be done. This exercise is in the form of analysis of forces that act upon any social/political or economic event that takes place. Again this analysis needs to be supported by the observations about the past behaviour of the people. This is so because, the developmental activity presupposes the positive social change, and it, in its turn, involves the change in the behaviour of masses. Masses do not change their behaviour all of a sudden, but change gradually; and the way they would behave in the years to come has, to a certain extent, a definite relation to their past behaviour. The habits, interests, attitudes or in short the behaviour related to affective domain, change very slowly; and as such the extrapolation of the behaviour of the masses can be made on the basis of its past response. The consistency in the behaviour over a period of time seems to be a worthwhile assumption. Taking this into view, the mere observation of the present behaviour is not sufficient if we want to take certain decisions which are related to public response to developmental activities. If we want to estimate probable participation and possible factors that motivate people in general for increased participation, analysis of the past behaviour seems to be a worthwhile strategy.

The interval for the study of Educational Reforms is significant from this angle as it contains periods of crisis, important from the point of view of people's participation in policy-making. This is so because the year 1920 corresponds to the introduction of dyarchy, and the entry of Indians in the policy-making exercise. The year 1935 signifies the handing over of the Department of Education to Indian Ministers, and 1947 is the independence year which assured the full participation of Indians in policy making at all levels. So for a study of the behaviour pattern of public response to its responsibility sharing, this interval offers a sequentially gradual widening of the scope of Indian enterprise in policy framing. Thus, what is the impact of more rights, how does the public react to the freedom, are some of the queries which can be answered after a thorough analysis of the educational reforms. All this rationale unmistakably points to one direction, namely, to the analytical study of the factors that reflect on the participation of various human elements involved in the various developmental tasks. The study of this kind assumes a high significance, especially when the masses in India showed their political maturity in the 1977 General Elections.

Slow Progress a Cause of Anxiety

As a part of the larger social framework along with all other development agencies, the people in the field of education also are equally restless

about the slow speed of development in the field of education. The faith in education as an instrument of social reconstruction, much held in the early seventies got a jolt. Illiteracy, dropouts, unemployment among educated youth, inefficient examination system, non-committed teachers and students are some of the indicators which constantly stressed the disturbed, restless character of the entire educational system in general.

If poverty, hunger, ignorance and such other social evils are to be removed from the national life, what should be done? What policies should be framed and followed? One who is anxious for the social well-being is perplexed with these questions. However, the rationalists try to arrive at certain alternative solutions to the problem they face. In deciding about the alternative solutions, their fundamental need is the thorough analysis of the factors operating in their field of inquiry.

Keeping in mind all these thoughts, one can now perceive the need to study the educational reforms in the year 1920 to 1980. In brief, the IIE Project aimed at collecting factors that (i) initiated the reforms, (ii) sustained the reforms, (iii) disturbed the reforms, and (iv) uprooted the reforms, with a view to emphasizing dynamics of educational reforms and getting insight for introducing new plans into the existing educational system. As mentioned earlier, this whole attempt to study the past for the insight into the future assumed that the social change is a slow process, and it must allow for the impact of traditional socialisation of the citizens, and must not expect total change in the direction and quantum of socialisation.

Need of the Case Study

The present investigator was to study the educational reforms in the field of Teacher Education for the above-mentioned era of 60 years. What this specific field of study has in common with the entire project is an important question to be answered so as to clarify the background perspective of the specific case study. This is attempted in the following paragraphs.

Education, being a developmental task, must anticipate public behaviour for getting response in the desired direction. It is one of the first tenets that the rationale of the total study has evolved. The teacher education being the key field of the system of formal education, it was quite natural that a special study of the same be undertaken. The study is much needed because it would throw light on how the people involved in the system of teacher education have behaved; who sponsored the reforms, who sustained them, what infrastructure either made or marred the reforms....etc.

As is very obvious, the Teacher Education System holds a key position in the entire formal system of education because it provides trained personnel to man the entire formal institutional structure. Hence, to a great extent,

the efficiency of the entire formal system depends on the efficiency of the sub-system of the teacher education. From that larger, broader perspective also, the special case study of the Teacher Education System was a much-needed task.

Now, to study the entire sub-system of Teacher Education for the whole of India was an impossible task for any one person, taking into consideration the time span and the area of the task. As such the area was delimited to the state of Maharashtra.

Statement of the Problem

The problem for investigation thus was framed as follows :

"To analyse the factors in operation in the educational reforms that were planned and or implemented in the Teacher Education in the State of Maharashtra from the year 1920 to the year 1980 with a view to finding out the clusters of factors which went with the initiation, sustenance, disturbance or uprooting of the Educational Reforms related to teacher education."

Definitions of the Terms

Educational Reforms: Any structural or functional change either suggested or implemented by the corresponding stage of teacher education; the initiator of the change may be any of the sub-systems of the entire educational system. Suggestion of a "change" implies that it is a planned one and it being so, it is also underlined that it would have the positive direction accepted by the system or the sub-system or by the social set up into which the system of education operates.

Clusters of Factors : When two or more situations seem to go together and do the similar kind of work, such situations for the purpose of this study are termed clusters of factors. According to the functions that they perform, they would be called as Initiator Cluster, Sustainer Cluster, Disturber Cluster and Uprooter Cluster.

The State of Maharashtra : Observations are made mainly about the present day geographical area of the State of Maharashtra, and the variations in the general administration due to the presence of princely states, or due to changes in the area under the governance of Bombay Presidency or bilingual state... etc., are not taken into consideration for the purpose of the analysis of factors. In brief, it is assumed that the present-day set up of the State of Maharashtra had its intact existence for all the sixty years of observation.

Objectives of the Study

The present study, being a part of the larger project, has objectives at two levels. The objectives of the entire project are not reiterated here.

Reference is made to a specific set of objectives kept in view for this particular specific case study. They are to find out : (i) factors that play an important part in bringing about educational reforms, with respect to Teacher Education; (ii) why educational reforms are introduced, accepted or rejected; (iii) if factor clusters are prevalent; and (iv) the situations in which the educational reforms are implemented *in toto*.

Method of Analysis

In order to analyse the factors that have bearing on educational reforms, first it was essential to locate the educational reforms in the field of Teacher Education. For locating educational reforms, the investigator had to rely on authentic Government Reports. Again the Centenary Report of the Department of Education in the State of Maharashtra provided the basic information up to 1956. The More Committee's Report also provided information. Then, for later years, the investigator referred to the Bhandarkar Committee's Report, Naik Committee's Report, and then the Reports of the S.B.T.E.'s meetings. It must be pointed out that the educational reforms thus located do not cover any particular individual who has modified any practice or any particular teacher education institute where some specific modifications are tried out as models, and are accepted as a part of the working of that institute. Such "innovations" were excluded because that would have entailed visits to all such places and a thorough analysis of these innovations and their impact. Again, such innovations when they prove beneficial to the system at large can act as initiators of educational reforms. So initial stages of development of the innovations were left out.

Tool for Analysis

For analysing the factors that have a close bearing on the operation of educational reforms, a check list was prepared. It was used as a scale for giving objective base to qualitative classification of the factors in operation. In preparing this check list, the following main considerations were taken as the base :

(1) For every planned change, there must be some situation which demands modification; similarly, there may be indicators of inefficiency present indirectly or directly.

(2) Most of the time, the changes suggested assume "remedial" forms; structural changes are initiated less often.

(3) For any modification, unless the inbuilt quality control mechanism is introduced, the spectacular results expected in the beginning generally wane. The concept of "feedback" being new, the presence of such inbuilt mechanism for quality control would not be in operation.

(4) The success/failure indicators of any educational reform would be found in the logistics of the sub-system of teacher education and the larger system of formal education. Logistics would demand that corresponding changes in objectives, curriculum, teaching methods, evaluation, other infrastructure would take place along with the reform suggested.

Check List

- (1) Where is the origin of the educational reform?
 - (a) Within the sub-system?
 - (b) Without the sub-system but within the larger formal system of education?
 - (c) Outside the educational system?
- (2) What is the nature of the educational reform?
 - (a) Remedial
 - (b) Structural
- (3) What are the causative factors of educational reforms?
 - (a) Dissatisfaction due to inefficiency of the sub-system itself
 - (b) Dissatisfaction due to inefficiency of the larger educational system
 - (c) Political happenings
 - (d) Social happenings
 - (e) Economic happenings
 - (f) Administrative dissatisfaction
- (4) Are the preparations made for instituting the reforms with respect to :
 - (a) Software
 - (b) Hardware
- (5) Are efforts made for carrying out the educational reforms organised in any way?
 - (a) Phasewise implementation
 - (b) Regional division
- (6) Are there provisions made for immediate feedback?
- (7) Are there provisions made for the evaluation of the entire educational reform after it is being implemented?
- (8) What are the indicators of impact of the educational reform?
 - (a) Changed nature of software
 - (b) Changed nature of hardware

(9) Have these educational reforms brought about the desired change?

(10) Is the gap between the objective and the performance of the sub-system reduced as a result of the educational reform?

Method of Analysis

The location of educational reforms was made separately for each level of teacher education. Then for each of the located educational reforms, the above-mentioned tool was administered and the data were collected about the prevailing dissatisfaction, type of reform, implementation of the same and the impact of the reform. For each educational reform, the factors affecting the process of educational reforms were sorted out on the basis of the above analysis. Then the observations for each of the stage of teacher education were compiled, and on the basis of that, the final clusters of factors is presented.

Scope of the Study

The present study mainly deals with educational reforms in primary teacher training for men, and in the secondary teacher training institutes. The pre-primary teachers' training or the teachers training in higher education has been left out due to want of time, and also due to considerations of the word limit put to the entire report.

11.2 EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN PRIMARY TEACHER EDUCATION (1920-1980)

11.2.1 Introduction

The analysis of the educational reforms in the primary teacher education during the period from 1920 to 1980 has been divided into four parts. They are : (1) 1920 to 1937; (2) 1937 to 1947; (3) 1947 to 1964; and (4) 1964 to 1980. For reasons stated earlier, these periods are separated mainly to facilitate analysis. The classification of the long sixty years in the four periods has reference to the scope of public sharing in policy-making. The year 1920 corresponds to the beginning of dyarchy; 1937 to a complete control of education by Indians themselves; 1947 to full political and economic freedom of the country and resulting aspirations from education; and 1964 corresponds to the need of comprehensive planning of the entire educational system in the light of importance attached to education as a means of social reconstruction.

The whole chapter is divided into five sections. The first four sections describe the educational reforms in each of the corresponding period, and the last section generalizes in the light of these earlier ones. Each of the first four sections contains the following :

(i) location of the education reform, (ii) description of the same, (iii) broad outline of its actual implementation, and (iv) assessment of the said education reform in the light of the efficiency criteria given in the first chapter by way of check list.

SECTION A (1920-1937)

Location of the Educational Reforms

The period between 1920 to 1937 comprises the following educational reforms in the field of Primary Teachers Education :

- (1) Discontinuation of training schools.*
- (2) Restriction on the output of second and third year trained teachers.
- (3) Appointment of untrained or partially trained teachers.
- (4) The transfer of education to the control of Indian Ministers resulting in definite acceptance of compulsory Primary Education and the State accepting it as a duty to provide a school in or within easily accessible distance of every village. To offer to the public a clear-cut picture of the Government's work in the area, it started a new practice of collecting data about villages which had schools and which did not have schools.

Description

The period immediately after the dyarchy seemed to be full of economic stringency. The reasons for the same were related to the financial arrangements under the statute. The provincial Governments had to pay first the agreed contributions to the Central Government and then the balance was to be used by the reserved and transferred departments. The method of allocation of funds to different departments proved to be a complex one. The funds for the transferred department of education were insufficient for the purpose. Since the Bombay State was an industrial province and economically sound, it had to part with a major slice of its revenue to the Government of India. The Indian Minister desired to have more share of funds towards education. In effect, the circumstances in which the minister had to work did not allow him that freedom of purse. The provincial Government was incapacitated to play its role fully towards satisfactory progress in the state in the field of education.

As a result, various ways to control the expenditure on education were thought of. One such way was the restriction on the number of teachers to be trained. The cost of teacher training at the primary level, thus, became a matter which could be reduced through the discontinuance of the training schools.

*Training School: An institution which provided training either upto first and second year course. (Source: A Review of education in Bombay State 1855-1955 page 295).

In the previous decade, the policy was to expand the training facilities. And in the very next decade the decision to control the same was being implemented.

Figures indicated below point out this difference in the policy of the Government :

(1) Institutions and Pupils (Men)

| | Year | | | |
|--------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | 1901-02 | 1911-12 | 1921-22 | 1931-32 |
| Institutions | 7 | 7 | 23 | 12 |
| Pupils | 614 | 1,029 | 2,083 | 711 |

(Source: Table No.7(2), (3) from A Reveiw of Education in Bombay State, 1855-1965, pp. 294, 296).

(2) Expenditure on Primary Teacher Training (Men)

| Year | Total Expenditure | Local Board and Municipal Funds |
|---------|-------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1901-02 | 97,883.00 | 9,076.00 |
| 1911-12 | 1,77,793.00 | 8,321.00 |
| 1921-22 | 6,68,244.00 | 21,445.00 |
| 1936-37 | 2,30,218.00 | 18,299.00 |

(Source: Table 7.5 from A Review of Education in Bombay State 1855-1955, p.302).

Along with these figures let us take into account the figures of the primary schools and pupils in the same years. This comparison would throw light on the implications of the contraction of training facilities and of the effect of the accepted policy of compulsory primary education leading to the opening of more schools in the villages.

(3) Growth of Primary Schools and Pupils

| Year | No. of schools | No. of pupils |
|---------|----------------|---------------|
| 1901-02 | 8,987 | 5,13,211 |
| 1911-12 | 12,622 | 7,98,508 |
| 1921-22 | 13,835 | 9,84,726 |
| 1931-32 | 14,827 | 11,43,808 |
| 1936-37 | 12,901 | 11,40,299 |

(Source: Table No. 3(3) A Review of Education in Bombay State 1855-1955, p. 72).

These figures put before us two facts : (i) the facilities of training were reduced in the period under consideration; and the expenditure on the same, too, was curtailed, (ii) the facilities for primary education grew and the number of schools and pupils had increased in the decade as compared to the past, except the number of schools in the year 1936-37. When we interpret these two facts together, the dilemma is underlined. Logically speaking, new schools would add to the demand for trained teachers; however, the funds did not allow the facility of trained teachers; and so the appointment of partially-trained or untrained teachers became an accepted practice.

In this very period of 1920 to 1937, the Hartog Committee had expressed its views about the initial qualifications of teachers and pointed out that the existing provisions in the matter were too low.

It pointed out that most provinces were saddled with a large number of untrained and inefficient middle-aged teachers who could not be got rid of and would not disappear from schools for many years.* They handicapped the schools, not only because they were inefficient themselves, but because they exercised, specially if they were head-teachers, a sterilising and depressing effect on the young and well-trained recruit. It seemed to them quite clear that, as matters stood in India, effective arrangements for training vernacular teachers must, generally speaking, precede the expansion of primary schools and the training of vernacular teacher itself depended on a good supply of recruits from middle vernacular schools.

In July 1932, another Committee, under the chairmanship of Mr. Thomas, studied the problem of teacher training, and had observed accordingly (i) to avoid the tendency of sacrificing quality for quantity, standards of teaching must be raised, (ii) the standards of teaching in primary schools must be raised through organising training of teachers, and (iii) the primary education was of such importance that Government and the local authorities must strive hard for a hundred per cent provision of trained teachers.

These observations of the Hartog Committee and Thomas Committee have put forth the view that first the training of the teachers should be completed and then the primary schools should be expanded. However, as a result of dyarchy, Indians had a say in the decision; and the need to open more schools at the primary level was appreciated more and thus the conflict between quality and quantity had come to stay.

Repercussions of the Reform

As a result of the discontinuation of training schools and the specific measure of abolition of the third-year class in the year 1925, there arose the problem of how to complete the curriculum shaped for three years

* Lokshilas: A three year's course after P.S.C. Exam. standard of which was defined as equivalent to matriculation minus English plus a craft.

course—either in two years or in one year. The emphasis was given more to practical work and observation. The curriculum contained the following subjects :

(i) Principles of Education and Practice of teaching, (ii) Mother tongue, (iii) Arithmetic, (iv) History, (v) Geography, (vi) Science—Physics, Chemistry, Physiology, Hygiene and first-aid, (vii) Drawing, (viii) Nature study & Gardening, (ix) Physical Education, (x) Hand work, and (xi) Music.

As compared to the curriculum in 1910, Algebra and second language were removed; and in 1919 Nature study or Gardening were added to it.

These additions and subtractions of subjects to the curriculum, and also the addition and subtraction of years to the training are an important feature of this period from 1920 to 1937. Whether to continue three years training, or one or two years was always a matter of consideration; and the answer to the same seemed to be not on the financial or academic or educational priority considerations. Most of the time, the decisions in the matter seemed to shift the way the Governments' Committees or Commissions valued either quality or quantity of primary education and correspondingly, the significance they attached to primary teachers' training. The conflict between what should be and what was feasible, it is felt, was a part and parcel of the execution of primary teacher training programme.

Evaluation

When the criteria for educational reform is applied to the above-mentioned reforms, the observations are as under :

- (1) The modifications cited above seemed to have a combined effect of all the three sources of education. It is said so because the addition or deletion of a year of training course by itself affected the sub-system of training. It was the result of the Government's thinking on the matter of education as reflected in the two Committees mentioned above. The financial stringency was a force outside the educational system, but it controlled the expansion of facilities in the sub-system of training of teachers.
- (2) The nature of the reforms conveyed a combination of remedial and structural type.
- (3) The deliberations in the field of education due to the two Committees set up by the Government, and the expansion at the primary school level, education as a primary function of popular ministry, created the forces of contraction and expansion. The result was the structure of the course itself passed for a tool of bringing about desired changes.

- (4) No special efforts for preparing men for new course contents were made. For other physical facilities too, nothing special was indicated which could be taken as special preparation.
- (5) No phasewise or regionwise division seemed to occur in implementing the reform.
- (6) No provision for immediate feedback was observed.
- (7) No evaluation of the entire educational modifications undertaken was organised.
- (8) No changes either in men or materials are reported, which were due to changes in training practices.
- (9) The contraction would lead to quality was the ruling thought; however, the appointment of untrained or partially-trained teachers became a necessity due to the expansion of primary education. So the vicious circle of shortage of properly-trained teachers and the expanding need for the same came into existence.
- (10) It did not decrease the gap. On the contrary, the need of qualified teachers grew and facilities for providing training were curtailed due to the financial stringency.

SECTION B (1937-1947)

The major sources of educational reform in the primary teacher education in the above-mentioned time interval are :

- (1) Appointment of the Committee under the chairmanship of Shri More for advising the Government on the question of the Training of Primary Teachers.
- (2) Outside the field of primary teacher training, the beginning of Basic Education was another major event which had a close relation to the field of primary teacher training. Basic Education had altogether a different curriculum and naturally demanded highly professional workers to carry out the curriculum vigorously. So in a way, it started making demands for changing the existing structure of training or opening new institutions which could equip students with these new skills. The general atmosphere has pervaded with the spirit of nationalism. Freedom was within sight and the role of the popular ministry was in a way enjoying the rehearsal of the full freedom in decision-making, of course, within the bounds of financial stringency which was almost a permanent feature of the system. The inexperience in planning, and in carrying out a policy decision along with the enthusiasm for

becoming a new independent country was a guiding force of all the workers in the field.

Description of the More Committee's recommendations accepted by the Government were as under :

- (1) The Committee disapproved P.S.C. as the entry qualification of general education to the teacher, as it proved to be inadequate for the teacher's work. So they suggested that every primary teacher must have at least ten years schooling when he joined the training school. "Lokshalas", the new educational set up, to provide additional three years' general education to P.S.C. pass candidates was suggested, and it was given the Matriculation status; however, English was to be omitted from the general education of these three additional years; and a craft was to be added to it.
- (2) The previous practice of offering general education in the first year of the training course should be dropped and the training course should mainly equip their candidates for the profession of teaching.
- (3) The third year training should be discontinued, and more candidates should be admitted to the first and second year classes.
- (4) The primary teacher education had a practice of allowing the candidates to resume their second or third year training even after their joining the work of teaching. However, not all used to complete the full course of three years. The result was a combination of trained teachers with professional training and also without it. To avoid this anomaly, the Committee suggested to discontinue the intermittent training and recommended two years continuous professional training.
- (5) In order to train the backlog of the teachers with only one year training, the Committee suggested that all such teachers below 40 should be given one year of professional training by admitting them to the second year's course.
- (6) The Committee categorically stated that no untrained teachers should be confirmed.

Implementation of the recommendations

That the level of general education of the primary teacher must be raised at the entry point itself was a thought lingering for quite some time in the educational circles; it got weightage in actual policy framework because of the Committee's firm decision. This acceptance to raise the entry qualification of the primary teacher created certain problems for implementation. The system of

primary teacher education had taken teachers with less educational background; what to do to upgrade them? was one of the problems. The Committee had suggested the outline for solving this problem by concentrating attention on teachers below 40 years.

The Committee had also suggested that the P.S.C. pass candidates should join Lokshalas, and should without a gap in their preparation of general education. However, in reality, Lokshalas did not prove themselves an effective educational set up as the Committee had chalked out. Observations in the note of dissent attached to the Committee Report, that establishing another set up was not the need of the hour, came true. The Scheme of Lokshalas* failed because the absence of English from the course made it less prestigious. Again, in 1949, there was instituted the S.S.C. Examination, to which a candidate could appear without offering English and without attending any special Lokshala.

Again the stipend to Lokshala candidates was closed down. Thus, the effort to have a parallel substitute for matriculation did not materialize.

Another implication of the recommendations was the extensive provision of training facilities, because the policy of 100 per cent trained teachers was agreed upon. As such the Government increased the training institutes; the private enterprise was encouraged and it was supported by offering them grants. The figures collected from the Centenary Report 1885-1955 below indicate these two aspects of the training of primary teachers :

| Year | Total institutes | Pupils | Institutes through Private Enterprises | Pupils |
|---------|---------------------|--------|--|--------|
| 1936-37 | 11 | 901 | 3 | 111 |
| 1946-47 | 36 | 4,081 | 16 | 1,761 |

In addition to the provision for new entrants, the care of partially trained or untrained teachers already in the service was equally important. The system of "Duty Pay" was introduced which proved to be a good incentive to the teachers already in the service.

Introduction of Basic Education

Basic Education was a major event of this period between 1937 to 1947. "Basic Education" was a concept which demanded change in the structure and function of primary education. Accordingly, it demanded a special provision of training teachers for Basic Schools. In the period of ten years under consideration, the state had accepted Basic Education on an

experimental basis, and tried to provide all its requirements along with the provisions of "Trained Teachers". The difficulties that were experienced by the system of Basic Education and all the additional outputs in terms of men, money and materials that it expected were beyond the scope of the system of primary education. This issue is covered in detail in a recent book by Dr. Kurien*. Even when the needs of training the teachers for the basic education are taken into account, it is felt that the policy-makers and administrators could not foresee the needed levels of inputs for making it a success. The need to prepare teacher educators for training the primary teachers was felt, and was given some thought, on an experimental level. However, the needed investment on the professional training of teacher educators was a matter which was not directly taken up.

The introduction of basic education had created an outside pressure on the system of teacher education of the primary level, because the popular ministry had accepted it in principle and it was bound to give its consent for widespread implementation of Basic Education. In the immediate year after independence, this was exactly what had happened, and the whole system of teacher education at the primary level got a big jolt, and found it very difficult to recover its balance and act as an efficient system of training course. This would be more clear when we take up the period of 1947 to 1964 for our discussion.

When the educational reforms in the period 1937 to 1947 are assessed on the efficiency criteria, what do we find?

- (1) For the first time, a special Committee for the primary teacher education was formed to study the important problems disturbing the field. The reforms, therefore, were from within.
- (2) The nature of changes suggested were of both the types—remedial as well as structural. However, the structural part of the changes did not prove its competency and the scheme of lokshalas was later on discontinued. The remedial part of the reformers stressed the initial qualifications of the teachers at the entry point, and the need to have 100 per cent trained teachers. These changes have paved the way for a sound base of teacher training and thus brought in a structural change.
- (3) The basis of changes suggested by the More Committee are to be found in the widespread feeling about the poor quality of teachers at the primary schools.
- (4) The need to have a structural change for improving the entry level of primary teachers was stressed and the scheme too was suggested. The phased-out programme for the same too was indicated.

*The Reorganisation Committee, Government of Bombay, Finance Department Resolution No. 8300 dt. 17.7.1932

- (5) The Committee had given thought to reforming and to the staffing of rural schools. Taking into consideration the component of village schools, both these aspects showed an insight of the Committee into the problems of the primary teacher education. However, it seems that not much cognizance of these thoughts was taken at the administrative level.
- (6) There was not any mechanism in the set of these reforms which would provide immediate quality control, to the system of primary teacher education. All the changes were basically to be organised at the level of the administration.
- (7) As a result of the recommendations of the Committee, there was a visible change in the entry qualification of primary teachers. Similarly, the stress on skills of teaching rather than on the general education became a matter of great concern. The whole discussion of the Committee left the impression that teaching is to be valued as a profession, and the training should concentrate on the same.
- (8) The recommendations noted earlier were put into action. However, due to the initial weakness in the system of Lokshala as a substitute to Matriculation, the scheme was discontinued. All other changes with respect to teachers' entry qualifications were put into effect. Other important recommendations were not conceded to as is seen from the Centenary Report of the Bombay State.

After going through the recommendations of the More Committee, one thought constantly perturbs the mind. It is the absence of any reference to the oncoming concept of Basic Education. Basic Education was accepted on an experimental basis in the year 1938-39. The More Committee submitted its report in August 1938. Gandhiji exposed his idea of Basic Education in the year 1936. How could this Committee not take into account this major event? Or did it not think of it as that important? If the Committee had taken any cognizance of this, it is felt, it would have provided guidelines for training teachers for basic education, or it would have categorically pointed out its views about its non-feasibility. In the beginning year of basic education, such practical feedback would have helped the entire education system, by avoiding wastage through implementing a costly model of education.

- (9) The need to increase the educational qualification of the teacher was stressed.

- (10) The gap could not be bridged as the forces released by Basic Education were too strong, and the sub-system was not in a position to receive them.

SECTION C (1947-1964)

This period covers the first years of an independent nation preparing itself to fight against the political, social and economic evils. It was the period when the nation was busy equipping itself with the infrastructure for bringing about major changes in a planned way. The efforts to have planned development were revealed through the acceptance of principles of planning. The phased programmes with definite targets of specific duration, and with all the involvements of the public, became the motto for planned development. How far this urge of planning reflected itself in the field of primary teacher training is a matter of great curiosity.

While locating the educational reforms in the primary teacher training in the period 1947 to 1964, only one endeavour of "planned change" could be sorted out. However, the changes in the system of primary teacher education were being made due to various pressures and these pressures must be first referred to so as to understand the milieu in which the primary teacher education was to function.

Pressures on the Primary Teacher Education

These factors could be cited as follows :

- (1) Decisions about the implementation of Basic Education on a universal basis with its phased programme.
- (2) Increased scope of private enterprise in the management of Primary Teacher Education Institutions.
- (3) Shortage of resources in terms of men, money and materials leading to compromises.
- (4) A whirl of vicious circles due to shortages.

Let us find out how these factors have affected the field of primary education in an unplanned way.

As mentioned previously, the basic education, though accepted on an experimental basis, was to stay permanently and was to be implemented in all the primary schools. Though widespread public opinion was not in favour of it, though the implementation on experimental basis too had brought to their notice the need of high input, the popular ministers accepted the suggestions of the Central Advisory Board, and decided to transform all the primary schools into Basic Schools. This major decision of transforming all schools into basic schools (though, in a gradual way as the original

thought was) proved to be most disastrous to the system of primary teacher training. The products of primary teacher training were not even competent enough to provide the 3 R's in an effective way, and they were mentally not prepared for the appreciation of the concept of Basic Education which demanded too much of philosophy and commitment to the national cause, by taking care of the head, hand and health; in such a confused state were the teachers to implement this concept.

It created two major issues :

- (i) how to provide in-service education to teachers who were already trained?
- (ii) how to provide training in basic education to the new entrants?

These two issues were closely connected with the system of primary teachers training. Now, once the transformation of schools was decided upon as feasible, the transformation of all training schools into basic training schools proved to be an easy way out. In order to make these transformations, various supporting alternatives/solutions were tried, e.g. (a) opening of craft schools, (b) elimination of the difference between the curricula of the basic schools and the ordinary schools, (c) the efforts to reduce the cost of basic schools so as to bring them at least on par with the cost structure of ordinary primary schools.

Thus, Government's decision to universalize Basic Education created insurmountable difficulties for the system of primary teacher training. They were expected to provide "basic trained teachers". However, the teacher educators trained in the basic education were less in number and therefore the opening of additional centres for graduates' training in basic education became a necessity. This, in its turn, created problems in the field of Secondary Teacher Training.

Who were to take the respective training of basic education? What should be their entry qualification? What other subjects should be taught to them? What should be the duration of their training? All such problems had to be tackled by the system of Secondary Teacher Training. Thus, the training of primary teachers being dependent on the sub-system of secondary teachers' training, it naturally had to face the time lag, and could not expect to satisfy all its demands instantaneously. However, the official reporting of the whole period, and even the statements in the Centenary Report of State of Bombay, indirectly indicate that Basic Education was an encouraging endeavour and it was going to help in changing the face of the country, though the original idea of "Basic Education" had accepted compromises almost at every stage of its existence. Thus, the acceptance of basic education on a universal basis affected the existing primary teacher training system in three main ways :

- (a) What to teach the trainees, i.e. what is the curriculum of the Primary Teacher Training Programme?
- (b) The training of the staff for basic education.
- (c) Duration of the course.

The 1949 curriculum and the decision of two years duration for the training course provided guidelines to the system of primary teacher training. About the third aspect of trained teachers, a trial and error approach was accepted. Social demand for education in general was also increasing.

As a response to the increasing demand for trained teachers due to the policy of compulsory, universal primary education, the Government gave wide scope to the private enterprise in opening new institutions.

There seemed no clear-cut criteria for judging the efficiency of all these newly-opened institutions. However, the 1949 curriculum demanded so much from the students and teachers that the time, space and human energy, almost the entire system, became restive. And by 1955, the management of the primary teachers' training colleges became a matter of serious concern. The result was the appointment of a Committee for inspecting the non-government primary training institutions and its submitting a detailed report on the conditions obtaining therein.

The recommendations of this Committee, under the chairmanship of Smt. Panandikar, were accepted by the Government, and in the next decade, till the study of the integrated committee on Teacher Education, the Government was busy implementing the recommendations of the Panandikar Committee.

The Committee was not referred in its terms of reference the duration of the course and the entry qualifications of the candidates. However, the Committee had studied these matters also, because without referring to the two, it could not study the question of formulation of syllabus. Thus, the Committee had given recommendations on the following points :

- (1) Staffing pattern of the training institutes.
- (2) Hostel accommodation of the training institutes.
- (3) Provision of practice lessons and supervision of practice lessons.
- (4) Provision of teaching crafts.
- (5) Basis of grant-in-aid, and ways of liberalising the same.
- (6) Modifications of the syllabus, if necessary.

The Committee wanted to solve the problem of shortage of trained teachers for basic education. As such, it tried to find out an alternative which could combine the needs of basic education. For that, it kept the training colleges open to candidates with either of the qualifications, viz. S.S.C. or

P.S.C., so that it guaranteed sure supply of trained teachers. At the same time, in the syllabus, the ratio of academic subjects to practical work was fixed at 5:4.

The P.S.C. entrant was expected to teach only lower primary, i.e. from the first to the fourth classes only. The Committee was of the view that the training duration of two years for both the types of entrants would offer them the teaching skills, and initial difference between the academic qualifications could be controlled by limiting the teaching of the P.S.C. candidates only to the first four classes. The Committee suggested that only trained graduates should be on the staff of the training colleges, and it also said that at least one Basic Trained graduate for each division should be provided. The Committee suggested a special monthly allowance of Rs.15/- as a token of heavy work load of the training colleges, and also recommended the travelling allowance for supervision of the practical work and block training away from the training institution.

The Committee has also given detailed recommendations about the grant formula, hostel accommodation and staffing pattern of the training colleges.

After going through all these recommendations, the most important impression that one carries is the ways and means the Committee wanted to suggest for lowering the burden of demands from Basic Schools in the form of Basic trained teachers, and also to satisfy the increasing demand of teachers for new schools. It was really a period when the expansion of the primary schools created such a pressure on the training institutions that rigour towards competency of the teaching staff or in the passing out of the prospective teachers, should have become a serious concern. The "immediate" problem demanded close attention and any efforts to try for any kind of rigour of quality was not within reach of the "immediate problem". So in implementing the recommendations of the Committee about the passing percentage, or about the qualifications of the staff, it is seen that only the minimum essential was attended to.

The Committee had referred also to the regional imbalances in the provision of training facilities. However, no direct action to redress the situation was taken in the later years.

In the wake of the recommendations of the Panandikar Committee, there was a tremendous increase in the training institutions. The Central Government gave special assistance to open Basic Training Institutions, and within the five years between 1957 to 1961, fifty new primary training institutions were added. In 1960-61 the total reached to 121, whereas in 1965-66 it increased by another twenty. However, what provisions were made to safeguard the efficiency of the training course could not be gathered.

In 1963, a study group of Primary Teacher Training examined the size of the training institution which would allow effective work. It had suggested two hundred as the optimum number which would allow efficiency and economy, and make the unit economically viable. However, not much cognizance of this study was taken till the Naik Committee took up this aspect of location of training institutions for study.

In short, the period between 1947 to 1964 seems to have been used mainly for sorting out the problems created by conversion of schools and training institutes into Basic Schools and Basic Training Institutions. The constitutional policy of universal primary education added to them the problem of expansion. Though the country has accepted "planning" as a principle of development, its rigour had not made any headway in the sub-system of primary teacher training institutions. Thorough status surveys of different components, such as teacher educators, students, finance, other facilities, efficiency of the curriculum, teaching methods, evaluation system, in-service provisions etc. were not attempted. Most of the time, the trial and error approach, and attending the "critical issues" and crisis conditions, provided to be a major strategy and the disciplined work, phased programme had not made much headway. As such, the initial vital years after freedom seem to have been almost wasted; no systematic efforts could be chalked out. Priorities were not determined. The whole energy was used for training teachers for craft-oriented education, which had to come to stay as a compromised form of basic education.

If the criteria of the efficiency are applied what is the emerging picture?

- (1) The Committee was appointed specially for the problems of primary teacher education. The reform is, therefore, within the system.
- (2) Though the Committee has suggested modifications in the curriculum, their nature was not structural, the form of these modifications being mere additions or subtractions of some subjects. As such the main stay of the reforms was mainly remedial.
- (3) The Committee was appointed mainly due to inefficient working of the training colleges. However, political, social, economic and administrative factors have contributed to the dissatisfaction about the efficiency of the sub-system.
- (4) Before executing the changes, there were no plans for creating any awareness about the new curriculum or the effective use of the existing facilities.
- (5) Implementation was undertaken at all levels and in all parts of the state. Though the regional imbalances were noted, and the formula for the provisions of new seats in the training colleges was suggested, not much attention was paid to them.

- (6) Whether while implementing the suggestions proper care was taken or not was not assessed. There was no structure available to do the same.
- (7) No continuous check up was feasible for quality improvement; such awareness had not yet become an accepted practice.
- (8) Mere change was seen in the syllabus. However, the quality of the product, i.e. the efficiency of the primary teachers, seemed to be unaffected and there was no change in the performance or, if there was any, it could not be gathered from the observations of the Committee for integrated teacher education.
- (9) Except allowing the steady flow of teachers for the expanding system of primary education, the reform did not bring about any change in the situation.
- (10) The gap between objectives and performance was not reduced.

SECTION D (1964-1980)

This period is the continuation of the interval between 1947 to 1964. Only for the benefit of close analysis, and to place distinctly the educational thought and practice in the field of the primary teacher training institutions, the effort to bring about changes in these years has been discussed separately.

The country as a whole was passing through an economic, political and social crisis. Production did not increase as per expectations. The ruling party could not explain the failure. The disparity among educated and uneducated, high caste and low caste, urban and rural sectors of population started widening. A sense of insecurity permeated the atmosphere. The country faced two major wars, one in 1965 and the other in 1971. These naturally strained the poor economy. Floods and droughts were also disturbing the agriculture, and hence the entire economy. However, in such an atmosphere full of despair and distress, the scientists had continued their work. They had found out many new varieties of grains yielding higher production, the air was full of "Revolutions" either "green" or "white". The whole agricultural sector had started benefiting from the modernisation which had made some headway in the first years of planning.

The impact of science had created the hope, and indirectly the hope was transferred to education; education as the main tool of change has become a sort of slogan. To this faith in education of the common man, thinkers in the field of education, in the country and outside the country, also added their philosophical arguments, and stressed that education not only offers skills for increasing productivity, it also takes care of the mind,

and social evils could be redressed through education. All these contemplations were a part of the faith and conviction about the powers of education. Much hope was expressed about the powers of education and as a part of it, the teachers in the system were given the prime position; and the role of the teachers was extended from classroom leadership to community leadership. The same was the expectation from teachers in pre-independence days, and immediately after the independence, however, "what and how of the teachers' role" became an explicit topic of discussion. Because of the Education Commission at the national level, the entire formal system of education and its sub-systems were provided a sort of awareness of the "totality of their existence" and the change in the atmosphere created awareness for positive action. The various State Governments were impressed by the psychological atmosphere created by the announcement of the Kothari Education Commission and later on, its report, the leaders and the workers started quoting from the "Geeta" of Indian education. The atmosphere, thus, was filled with hope about the constructive power of education. It naturally had its impact on the policy-makers of the State of Maharashtra.

The quality of school education being linked with the quality of teachers at all levels, teacher education became the basic issue for appointing the Committee in November, 1965. Thus, the very appointment of the Committee seems to have been undertaken with somewhat more awareness at the government level. The terms of reference of the Committee have a direct bearing on the important parts of the sub-system of teacher training. And all the levels of teacher training were to be studied in a comprehensive way, so that effect of one on the other could be perceived, and acknowledged in the statements of terms of reference.

This Committee has recommended the following measures in connection with the Primary Teacher Training (only the major ones are cited) :

- (1) Since teachers who are educated only upto the P.S.C. level are not fit to give the kind of primary education required for scientific and technological development, and are not capable of using modern techniques of teaching, their recruitment at the primary level and the admission of P.S.C. holders to the training institutions, particularly as private candidates, should be stopped. This measure should be taken immediately, i.e. from June 1967.
- (2) Since the teachers recruited to-day would be required to teach effectively at least till the year 2000 A.D. and work through a period which is bound to be one of constant and revolutionary changes in human affairs, they would need constant re-training. Their lowest qualification must, therefore, be the S.S.C. because

that is the level of school education pre-requisite to the retraining of the primary teacher working in a scientific age.

- (3) For an intensive improvement of education in Standards V to VII which constitute the first stage in the child's pursuit of formal studies, special teachers, with the requisite training, should be appointed for every subject in the curriculum.
- (4) The number of women teachers at the primary and secondary stages should be speedily increased by offering them free training.
- (5) All teacher education should be made free by 1972.
- (6) Recognised teachers' associations should be encouraged to participate in programmes of personnel improvement and they should not be recognised unless their activities include a high proportion of academic programmes.
- (7) The criteria for the recognition of teachers' organisations should preferably be prepared by the State Board of Teacher-Education and submitted to Government for implementation.
- (8) Examinations at the end of pre-primary and primary courses of teacher-education should be conducted by the State Board and it should award Diplomas and Certificates in Education, at the primary and pre-primary levels, respectively.
- (9) The examination and evaluation of teacher-education courses should be modernised and the practical examinations held at present should be abolished.
- (10) The assessment of practical work should be made on the basis of a carefully maintained record which can be objectively evaluated and would not be put in the danger by the subjective variation from institution to institution.
- (11) The proportion of weightage to theory and practice should be 60:40 at the secondary and primary levels, and 50:50 at the pre-primary level.
- (12) The age of entrance to the teaching profession should not be below 18 and above 35 years.
- (13) The pattern of teacher-education in the state should be as follows :
 - (a) Diploma in Education (Primary) course of two years' duration after S.S.C. for all teachers of Standards I to VII.
 - (b) Diploma in Education (Pre-Primary) course of two years' duration after S.S.C. for teachers of full-fledged pre-primary schools with eligibility to teach in Standards I and II of primary schools.

- (c) Certificate in Education Course of one year's duration after S.S.C., with eligibility to teach only in pre-primary schools.
 - (d) Lower Certificate in Education Course of one year's duration for P.S.C. candidates at the pre-primary level, to be followed by two more courses of six months' duration each, within five years of the initial course (If these teachers pass their S.S.C. examination within three years after the initial course, Certificates may be granted to them by waiving the two additional courses).
 - (e) Bachelor of Education Degree Course of one year's duration for graduate teachers of secondary schools or graduate Head Masters of primary and pre-primary schools.
- (14) It is recommended that teacher-education curricula, at all levels, should be immediately revised with the help of a special Committee to be appointed by the State Board of Teacher Education. Experts in curriculum construction should be attached to the Committee. Their services may be obtained from the NCERT. The Committee should be requested to construct the curricula for all levels of general teacher-education, through the co-ordinated efforts of "working groups" each of which would be responsible for one level.
- (15) The curricula should be based on the new directions indicated in Sections 8.3, 8.4, 8.5, 8.8 and 8.11 and may utilise the indicative outlines given in Appendix VII of this Report.
- (16) The qualifications of teacher-educators at all levels must be increased in view of the increasing qualifications of the entrants to the teaching profession.
- (17) Since the pre-primary and primary training institutions will have to be equated with intermediate or junior colleges, the basic qualifications of their teacher-educators should be the same as those of lecturers in the colleges of Arts and Science at the same level.
- (18) At the secondary level, the staff should be categorised into Lecturers/Readers/Assistant Professors, Professors, as in other collegiate institutions.
- (19) The practice of appointing Masters of Methods with only the B.A.B.Ed. or B.Sc. B.Ed. qualifications simply for observing lessons should be abolished as it reduces the standards of teacher education.
- (20) For the in-service education of primary teachers whose number is very large, institutional courses should be provided in special

in-service education institutions to be established throughout the State at the rate of one per district. Their programmes and staffing pattern should be developed as indicated in Section 6.10.

- (21) The in-service education institutions at the primary level should conduct separate courses for teachers and headmasters of primary schools throughout the year.
- (22) Teacher-educators at the secondary and primary levels should also be provided with Summer Institutes for refreshing their knowledge in the subject of their specialisation.
- (23) The State Institute of Education should provide extension services to pre-primary and primary Junior Colleges of Education. The participation of the relevant academic units functioning in the Department should be obtained for these programmes.
- (24) It should be obligatory for every educational functionary to undergo three months of in-service education in every five years of service.
- (25) Correspondence Courses should be started and progressively developed as an effective and inexpensive mode of in-service education in professional and content subjects for all types of educational personnel. It is strongly recommended that correspondence education for the improvement of the content knowledge of primary teachers, particularly the P.S.C. elements in the existing teaching force, should be undertaken immediately through a Department of Correspondence Education to be created in the State Institute of Education.
- (26) At the primary stage, estimates of recruitment should be planned so as to progressively increase the number of S.S.C. holders and decrease the number of P.S.C. passed teachers.
- (27) Teacher requirements at the primary stage should be gradually re-worked out so as to facilitate the provision of subject-teaching in Standards V, VI and VII.
- (28) The proportion of men and women teachers should be so worked out that gradually there is a greater proportion of women primary teachers as in progressive countries.
- (29) The requirements of primary teachers for the tribal areas should be worked out separately from the general provision.
- (30) The financial and educational implications of the location and intake capacity of Colleges of Education (both primary and secondary) should receive very careful attention in the plans.

The Committee on Teacher Education in Maharashtra State has recommended the measures as mentioned above in relation to the Primary Education.

Thus, this Committee expressed its views on almost all aspects of the Primary Teacher Education. It has shown how close the relation of the primary education with primary teachers' education is, and stressed that for effective modifications, the sequence of changes in teacher education and the formal system of primary education must be maintained.

The Committee has specified the norms for inputs, norms for the process and the norms for the output. The most important reform suggested and implemented is that of the establishment of the S.B.T.E., i.e. State Board of Teacher Education. This mechanism of S.B.T.E. is a reform which has given to the whole set up of teachers education a needed institutional structure for continuous renovation. The very purpose of the S.B.T.E. is to think and act in the field of teacher education. The formation of its members has made it possible to have a larger perspective about the teacher from teachers and administrators at all levels. This, in a way, assures of the continuity and integration among various stages of teacher education.

The functions and responsibilities assigned to S.B.T.E. point out that the S.B.T.E. is to take care of the inputs, of the process and of the output in the teacher education at all levels.

In the last 15 years, the S.B.T.E. has, through different Committees, formulated changes in the curriculum of the primary education in the light of the changed school curriculum, and in the light of the national needs and policies in the field of teacher education.

It has organised orientation programmes for teacher educators, has sanctioned books for the Junior Colleges of Education, has organised examinations. The reports of the various Committee meetings held in the last 17 years unmistakably point out that the primary teachers education now has got the platform for continuous renewal and it would think of the changing times more easily.

Of course, the institutional structure is a basic tool for operation. How to keep it effective and how to use it effectively will depend ultimately on the people who man it. In other words, the service that S.B.T.E. would give depends on the quality of members of its various groups. As such, the speed and the tempo of its work has the inherent tendency to get lost within the democratic structure of committees and sub-committees and their decision-making power. The number of yearly meetings of all the members is fixed, and the total work needs to be carried out through the formation of sub-committees for the purpose. The teacher educators are involved in

the working of the S.B.T.E. And their urge and insight in a way decide the fate of teacher education. Their preparation for the role of teacher educators lacks much. As such the work of S.B.T.E. suffers a set back. Even then the logistics of the teacher education has been suggested and the needed structure has been formed; in the last decade and a half, we have experienced two revisions in the curriculum of primary teacher education (1968-1980).

Along with these changes, the Committee has stressed the importance of in-service training, and has suggested specific structural adjustments. As a result, in the last 15 years, the in-service has made headway at the primary teacher education level. As such, a new subject or method or technique is generally introduced to the concerned educational administrators and teacher educators. Of course, taking into consideration the need of in-service education of all the teacher educators, these attempts are scanty.

Special features of the reforms suggested by the Naik Committee are :

- (1) It took into account teacher education at all levels.
- (2) It specified the dependence between the quality of education and the quality of teachers.
- (3) It stressed the need to follow a sequence between the changes in school curriculum and teacher education curriculum and execution.
- (4) It gave a theoretical rationale for the changes suggested.

Observations in the light of the criteria are :

- (1) The origin of the educational reform suggested by the Naik Committee is partly within the sub-system, partly within the larger formal system of education, and also within the general dissatisfaction that filled the atmosphere outside the educational system.
- (2) The Committee had suggested both the types of reforms—structural as well as functional.
- (3) As the reforms suggested by the Naik Committee have their origin in the dissatisfaction within and without the sub-system of teacher education, and outside the education system, the causative factors correspond to all the five areas.
- (4) The Committee has suggested strategies for bringing about changes in software and hardware, and S.B.T.E. has been created and it has taken a lead in the preparation of primary teacher education.
- (5) Efforts are made to carry out the suggestions of the Naik Committee. The regional imbalances were analysed and the

opening or closure of primary teacher training institutions, i.e. Junior Colleges, was undertaken in the light of the needs of the region.

- (6) The Panel Inspections were introduced and the device could offer two-way guidance, guidance to teacher educators in the institutions, and to administrators and planners about the worthwhileness of the schemes suggested.
- (7) No such provision seems to have been made.
- (8) The in-service training of "teacher educators" has come into focus. However, their pre-service education for "professional commitments" is not organised. The lecture method still governs the classroom interactions. That also reflects on the preparation of the software in the system.
- (9) The reforms have indicated the desired ways of betterment. The most upto date thinking in the area of teacher education is made the basis of the whole teacher education.
- (10) The gap between objectives and performance is not reduced to such an extent that everyone can expect something spectacular from the training institutions. However, provisions such as S.B.T.E., and efforts for evaluating the system of teacher education have paved the way for quick reaction time between the changes in the school system and the teacher education system. The need to maintain logistics is well underlined.

EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION (1920-1980)

After going through the available literature having direct bearing upon the topic under consideration, it was found that Secondary Training Education in the State of Maharashtra was almost stagnant till independence. Even after independence, educational reforms carried out in the particular field have not brought about any remarkable change in the course, contents or methods of teaching, or in the role performance of the teacher educators. As the history of educational reforms in the Secondary Teacher Education is more indicative of the stagnant character of the system, the entire period of sixty years has been divided into two broad periods : (i) period from 1920 to 1947 and (ii) period from 1947 to 1980.

As in the discussion of the Primary Teacher Education, here too first the educational reforms have been located, and then on the basis of the criteria, they are evaluated. At the end, the comments on the whole system are given.

(A) PERIOD FROM 1920 to 1947**S.T.C.E. Course**

The provisions for secondary teacher education upto 1920 were made through organizing a Secondary Teachers' Certificate Examination (STC) held by the Department of Education. Later on, the course was managed by the Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay. This particular course was a great facility to the teachers, because it was an economical solution maximising the benefits at two ends : (i) by avoiding a year's stay at a distant place and thus avoiding the expenditure of such stay and (ii) the benefits of certificate of professional training course could be accrued. The course had two parts, theory and practice. The theory part contained two papers, (i) history of education and general methods, and (ii) Special Methods, school organisation and Hygiene. In 1933, the two papers were revised, and they were entitled as (i) History of Education and Elementary Principles of Education, and (ii) Methods of Teaching and School Organisation and Hygiene. Again in 1943, these papers were modified into Paper I—Elementary Principles of Education, Paper II—School Organisation and Hygiene, Paper III—Special Methods.

In 1954 the syllabus of Part I was modified, and instead of three papers, they were made four, viz. Paper I—Elementary Principles of Education, Paper II—School Organisation and Hygiene and Educational Administration and Movements, Paper III—General Methods and Paper IV—Special Methods.

The number of lessons to be conducted, i.e. Part II of the course also, was shifted from 15 to 30, plus observation of 50 lessons of trained teachers and writing of the six essays under the guidance of the trained graduate teachers. In 1954, for the first time, the medium of answering the examination could be the regional language. This permission of using regional language for a written examination had increased the passing percentage of S.T.C. candidates as could be seen from the following figures :

| Year | No. of students who appeared for the examination | Number of students who became eligible for S.T. certificate |
|---------|--|---|
| 1921-22 | 61 | 27 |
| 1931-32 | 338 | 138 |
| 1936-37 | 553 | 182 |
| 1941-42 | 979 | 406 |
| 1946-47 | 232 | 95 |
| 1951-52 | 639 | 320 |
| 1953-54 | 408 | 366 |

(Source: A Review of Education in Bombay State 1855-1955 p. 285.)

The S.T.C. examination, thus, provided training facilities for the teachers in Secondary Schools who would teach upto VII classes. As such, there were two streams through which the teachers were trained for Classes V to VII. Nowhere, however, one comes across a comparison of the two streams of teachers.

Now, when one goes through the above details of the development of the course and applies to it the criteria of educational reforms, what does one perceive?

The changes that were brought about were mostly in the theory papers. The load of theory went on increasing without any change in the duration of the course.

What do we obtain when efficiency criteria are applied to the reforms?

- (1) The changes in the theory, it is seen, occurred due to the development of thought in the discipline of education, and as such the origin of the changes was an indirect result of the changes in the history of thought of education and the impact of the same on the training of the teachers.
- (2) As the specific thoughts that governed the changes in the curriculum could not be located, it cannot be said that the curricula changes were merely remedial, but they did not bring in any structural changes, as there was not an explicit statement as to what the additions should offer to the teacher in his work in the school. As the reason expects the addition of knowledge must have been assumed to lead to a better performance of the teachers, as more the knowledge, more the competence might be the ruling maxim. So, the curriculum changes seem to have worked more as an effort in the betterment of the course.
- (3) Dissatisfaction about the teachers with the S.T.C. examination or any other kind of dissatisfaction did not seem to affect the system of S.T.C. course.
- (4) Even when changes in the curriculum had been implemented, the teacher (teacher educator) who guided them did not seem to have received any training for the new course. Neither the provisions for new methods in terms of any additional facilities were brought in.
- (5) The department revised the curriculum and it was implemented. The question of how to implement it did not seem to have arisen, as it was accepted as was given.
- (6) All the remaining considerations, viz. provision of feedback immediately, or evaluation of the modifications or changes in the

soft and hardware, and desired changes in the field did not fit in the above situation. The only positive contribution of the S.T.C.E. course as such was the economical provision of facilities for training and offering them advantages of being a trained teacher.

(B) S.T.C.E. Course after 1947

As pointed out earlier, the contents of the course were modified in the year 1959 and till June 1966, and when it was abolished, the same contents were taught. The S.T.C. course got an alternative in the form of T.D. (Teachers Diploma) run by the Universities, and which was a full-time course and which saved the first year of college. Of course, when the Naik Committee analysed the various courses, it suggested that S.B.T.E. should concentrate on integrating the entire set up of training courses and the same committee had suggested the integration format. So the entire training course structure got a new name as "Education Course" and got it divided into four stages—Pre-primary, Primary, Secondary and Higher Education.

Colleges of Education would include institutions for training of graduates and Junior Colleges of Education, the training for teachers of pre-primary and primary teachers.

The report of the meetings of the S.B.T.E. since its inception had pointed out that it had acted in the direction suggested by the Naik Committee, and the two levels of training for V, VI and VII classes had been discontinued, and now Secondary Schools also have to appoint a D.Ed. candidate for teaching lower standards.

Thus, in the years after independence, the secondary training certificate examination course was discontinued and uniform training facilities came into existence.

This meant that, for taking teachers' training, one must be ready to attend a full-time course and without training, the job of teaching would not be available. On the only basis of mere anticipation, one can say that the chances of getting a better qualified staff for the schools increased. However, the investigator did not come across any study in the direction which might have estimated the effect of closing S.T.C.E. and introducing D.Ed. as a basic qualification of teaching.

The efficiency criteria to the period after 1947, when applied, provides the same observations as found in earlier period. So the duplication of more or less the same comments has been avoided. However, the entire analysis points out that the secondary teachers' education at its lower end never came into focus; and no special commission or committee had studied it. Possibly, the S.T.C.E. course came into being as a short-cut to full-time training, and

as a short-cut, it proved to be quite useful to the teachers for getting employment, and its other benefits, that the discontent about it was not visible or was perhaps never felt. Again the area over which the course was dispersed never brought either all the teachers (i.e. teacher educators) or all candidates together. So possibly, the overall exchange of views on different aspects of the course could not take place. In addition, the secondary school teachers who were graduates and trained had a sort of incentive in helping run the S.T.C.E. classes. So the academic worthwhileness of the sub-system of the course, it is felt, never became anybody's concern or anxiety.

Thus, the S.T.C.E. course, though it was in existence for more than 60 odd years, did not attract any strong criticism from within or without; as a result of strong alternative being created to take the place of S.T.C.E., it had to stop its functioning.

The Secondary Teacher Education (1920 to 1947)

Till 1923 those university graduates who wanted to become secondary school teachers had to obtain a teaching Diploma. However, in the year 1923, the secondary training college came into being as a Diploma Institute and got affiliated to the University of Bombay, and instead of a diploma, a full-scale degree was being offered to the teacher trainees. For the first time, the teacher education came into contact with the University. The degree got the name B.T. (Bachelor of Teaching). As per the name, the course naturally stressed on teaching from theory and practice point of view. This approach to teacher education from its very inception has resulted in a short-sighted view of teacher preparation. The teacher's acquiring mastery over teaching is only one aspect of his role; as a leader in the academic field, he must be brought into contact with other facets of functions of education and his tasks. This was a thought which was never explicitly stated in the early years, and as a result, the only changes that were brought about up till 1947 were related to the increase in theory papers and the practical work the teacher trainees were to complete. The initial provision of training available in Bombay were for teachers in Government High Schools; later on teachers from private schools were admitted, and after 1927-28, the demand for B.T. seats increased. The strength in the Bombay College was raised from 75 to 100 in 1932-33, but no further expansion at that institution was attempted. The need of expansion was fulfilled, to a certain extent, by the opening of the new colleges at places other than Bombay. The S.M.T.T. College, Kolhapur was started by the Kolhapur State in 1934 and affiliated to the Bombay University and S.T. College in the Baroda State was opened in 1939 and was affiliated to the University of Bombay.

Similarly, a college at Belgaum in 1939 and another at Poona in 1941 started which provided teaching facilities at the Secondary School Education.

When one tries to find out the educational reform in these first 25 years of the training, what could one locate? Basically, in all these 25 years in the beginning, the entire teaching and the changes in theory or practice lessons, practicals to be carried out had not the strength to bring about any spectacular change in the role perception of the teachers trained or in their teacher educators as leaders in the field of education. The difference in the teacher educators and the school teachers was mainly in respect of academic qualifications.

The teacher educators got no special training for their major role of being leaders, shaping the face of the entire education system. Their presence in the universities was not felt, as a structural link of theirs was more strong with schools rather than with the other Departments of the Universities. Research, too, has not made any definite impact on the working of the training colleges.

The efforts to locate educational reforms in the first 25 years of the training colleges, thus led one to make a very disturbing observation, that there was no change brought about by any of the agencies and the sub-system of graduates training got itself linked with the management of teaching at the secondary school level.

(As the investigator could not locate any educational reform in this period of 25 years, the later part of the treatment of studying the efficiency of the system did not arise).

The Secondary Teacher Education (1947 to 1980)

Efforts in locating educational reform in the period between 1947 to 1980 have brought to notice three major factors which have caused a stir in the stagnant stream of secondary teacher education. They are : (i) need to provide basic trained graduates for primary teacher training colleges, (ii) expansion of primary and secondary education in rural areas, and the resultant increase in the need of trained teachers, (iii) appointment of the Naik Committee for the study of teacher education in the State of Maharashtra. The Committee studied the problems of the entire teachers education system and suggested changes in the then existing pattern and practices. The implementation of the Committee's recommendations is still going on as is seen from the various measures adopted by the State Government.

Establishment of the Basic Training College for Graduates

As pointed out in the discussion on Primary Teacher Training in 1947, the need to have graduates trained in Basic Education became of paramount importance, as they were to man the training of teachers for Basic Schools. As a result, the College at Belgaum was entrusted with the responsibility

of training graduates for Basic Education (1947). However, in the beginning, only a special class was held for graduates. Later on, full-fledged training centres for Basic Education was thought to be a better way out and, three centres were established. One for Maharashtra was located at Bordi (Thana). In the beginning years, this centre found it very difficult to get graduates, because getting employment for trained graduates in this centre was difficult, and timings of the course too were not suitable. To overcome these obstacles, in 1953-54, the equivalence to training in these centres with that of the then existing B.T. examination was given and the availability of students for these centres was ensured. In this way, in the years from 1920 to 1947, the reform that could be located relates to the introduction of Basic Education as a part of the training programme.

The first 25 years of secondary teacher training were mostly utilised for continuing the practice adopted in the initial years, and even expansion of the training facilities as an indicator of natural growth was undertaken comparatively in a very limited way as seen from the statistics given earlier.

Educational Reforms in Secondary Training Colleges (1947 to 1980)

When one examines the changes that have taken place in these institutions, the following main aspects could be located :

- (1) In 1955-56, the curriculum was changed and the basic change was related to the provision of specific fields of training, e.g. vocational guidance, rural education, physical education etc.
- (2) The extension centres were attached to colleges for having a continuous flow of new knowledge and new techniques from colleges to the schools.
- (3) In 1965, the Naik Committee was appointed for the study of all aspects of the teacher education in the State of Maharashtra, and quantity and quality considerations were given to the system in vogue; and it recommended a change for each and every aspect of the training institutions which were suffering from stagnancy and resulting incompetency in accepting the challenges of the times. The school education being expanded and going to continue to do the same in future for some years created different needs, and changing school curriculum too created different expectations from the training institutions. The Naik Committee clearly pointed out the relationship of the training colleges with the school system, with the university, and with the community, and thus spelt out the functions of training colleges, such as research and in-service education along with the pre-service and extension functions and placed them in their proper perspective.

- (4) As a result of the Naik Committee's detailed observations, an effort to place the upto date thought in the field of education, training, national and international needs, and their relevance to the community, the need to change the curriculum of the colleges of education became distinct, and in 1972, the curriculum of colleges of education was changed in the light of the observations made by the Naik Committee.
- (5) As a part of the function of the S.B.T.E., a mechanism created on the recommendation of the Naik Committee, there is again a change in the syllabus so as to suit the national needs and the needs of the schools in the light of the change in their curriculum. And, thus in 1977, the process of changing the curriculum in B.Ed. Colleges was started, which is not yet complete in all of the universities in the State of Maharashtra.
- (6) The responsibility of training the teacher educators has also been entrusted to the State Board of Teacher Education, which is also a major change. The orientation to the teacher educators as a prerequisite has been duly emphasised in the Naik Committee's observations.
- (7) Research on the part of the teacher educators, and education as a discipline in itself are the two major considerations brought into their proper perspective by the Naik Committee. The need for raising the educational and professional qualifications of the teacher educators was elaborately referred to.

The analysis of the educational and research qualifications of the teacher educators has underlined the necessity of the improvement of qualifications of the teacher educator (p.179). And the various ways to improve the same have also been noted down.

Thus, the period from 1966 to 1980 consists of the abovementioned reforms in the field of teacher education at the secondary level. The basis for the whole philosophy and working of the teacher education as a system by itself was provided due to the Naik Committee's observations based on the data collected for the purpose.

When one applies the evaluative criteria to the abovementioned educational reform, what does one perceive?

- (1) The origin of the abovementioned changes is within the appointment of the Naik Committee for the study of the teacher education. However, the Naik Committee was to study the entire teacher education and as a part of the total system of teacher education, the sub-system of secondary teacher education was studied and changes were suggested. As such, the interrelations

of the various suggestions within and without the sub-system are clearly anticipated. There was a correspondence with respect to time in the Naik Committee's analysis of the total system of teacher education, and the work of the Kothari Education Commission at the national level, which was to study the entire system of formal and non-formal education. Naturally, the new perspective of national needs that was kept in view by the Kothari Education Commission seems to have acted as a congenial atmosphere for the reforms in the field of the teacher education suggested by the Naik Committee.

- (2) The nature of educational reforms is both remedial as well as structural. Introduction of S.B.T.E., stress on extension activities and on research are some of the indicators of the dual nature of the educational reform.
- (3) The causative factors for the educational reform were mainly the needs (a) to have more trained teachers for the expansion of the school system, and (b) to have quality teachers for shouldering the responsibilities of explosion in knowledge and of rising expectations. So in a way, the dissatisfaction due to inefficiency of the sub-system was supported by all the other factors noted down in criterion No.3 (Chapter 1).
- (4) The Naik Committee has suggested the mechanism for implementing the changes in the teacher education, its recommendation on the creation of the S.B.T.E. and the stress on the teacher educators' orientations, thus paving the way for preparations for software and hardware.

However, the preparations required for changing the attitude of the teacher educators and the needed hardware for the same could not be estimated. The main reason for this lapse on the part of the present researcher was the constraint of time, and also the in-built constraints due to lack of researches in this direction. The measure of changes in the attitude of the teacher educators as a part of preparation, therefore, could not be undertaken.

- (5) The efforts to implement the recommendations are visible from the working of the S.B.T.E. It has taken the lead for curriculum revision and also for reconstruction (1972-1977 onwards). It has also conducted workshops and seminars for the principals and teacher educators. The S.B.T.E. has the right to suggest changes in the teacher education courses organised by the various universities. However, the ultimate decision in the matter is within the purview of the respective university body of various universities and the S.B.T.E. has no control over the finalisation of the

curriculum, and also on its implementation. As such, the efforts to carry out the changes remain restricted.

- (6) The reactions from the teacher educators, and college principals on the new practices being implemented have been collected. However, the officials at the S.B.T.E. brought to our notice a fact that such responses could not be of much use, as not all have responded to the introduced change and to its effects. The members of the S.B.T.E. are principals, and the communication of the new trends and thoughts to the teacher educator in general rests on the initiative the principals show.
- (7) No such provisions for evaluating the entire educational reforms in the field of teacher education are made in the very structure of the system.
- (8) The change in the software that is being noticed relates to the larger number of teacher educators going in for research degree. Again, the practice of obtaining a Research Degree may be correlated to the oncoming pressure of the revised scale of U.G.C. making a research degree obligatory. However, about the change in general proficiency, nothing specific can be said in the absence of such a representative evaluation of the behaviour of the teacher educators. About the hardware also, the use of technology for increasing the efficiency of teaching in the colleges of education, nothing spectacular is being experienced. Though these observations do not possess any research-based valid proof, the present investigator in her work as a member of the research committee of Maharashtra State Secondary Teacher Educators' Association has based herself on her firsthand experience of interactions with teacher educators in the State of Maharashtra. The teacher educators in general have yet to overcome the inertia and yet to acquire the attitudes for experimentation and discovery approach to bring about changes in the institution where they work or in the schools and the community around them. The recent change in the curriculum and introduction of SUPW and (working with the Committee) social service, or the addition of the course in emerging Indian society, teacher and education, have not yet resulted in any kind of cognitive changes in the treatment of various topics in the curriculum, nor have these changes made them aware of the fundamental modifications in the role of the teacher that the curriculum expects to bring about. The orientation for such changes in the outlook, though carried out in some universities, were not enough.
- (9) The in-service education, the extension education and the research, all these basic functions, though recorded in the list of

the role of colleges of education, the quality of school education does not allow one to say that there is impact of reform in the colleges of education in the related fields.

- (10) The Naik Committee has strongly underlined the gap between the objectives of colleges of education and their performance and has suggested remedial and structural changes (e.g. Integrated B.Ed. Course). However, the performance of colleges of education in the period between the years 1965 and 1980 does not differ and the only gap that has been met in the last fifteen years is in terms of explicitly spelling out the activities of the colleges of education and the beginning of the efforts for in-service, extension and research activities on a comparatively, continuous basis.

CONCLUSIONS

As pointed out in the first chapter, the emphasis was to sort out factors that initiated, sustained, disturbed or uprooted the reforms. In addition to this, it was also intended to find out if there is any relation between the increasing scope of public's participation in decision-making and the mechanism of reform.

A. Clusters

The analysis of factors that led to educational reform in primary and secondary teacher education brought to notice the following remarkable characteristics :

- (1) The initiative of the educational reforms always rested with the Government. And Commissions were/are appointed by the Government and their recommendations were/are either accepted or rejected and the change element is introduced mainly by these Committee Reports.
- (2) The efforts to sustain the changes introduced are left to the sweet will of the particular sub-system. The result is that logistics of the reforms are not cared for.
- (3) The educational reforms suggested by the different bodies seem generally to be disturbed because the mechanism to safeguard the exact implementation of the same is not created, and when created, they are not rigorously followed.
- (4) Educational reforms are never strongly opposed or supported; once the Government accepts them, they are communicated, and within their structural and functional limitations, they try to adjust to the new recommendations and thus the norm of involvement

of the concerned agents for undertaking any change is not maintained. Compromises of this nature result in lip sympathy to new practices, and in reality, the institutions continue their work without changing their old pattern. Pretentious acceptance, thus, leads to the complete failure of the reform.

The successful implementation of any educational reform presupposes thorough understanding of the philosophical background of the changes in practice. However, in the process of educational reform in the education of teachers, such understanding of philosophical background of reforms and its reflection in practices, explicit links were not found; again the teacher educators as such did not seem to take the role of initiators or sustainers. On the other hand, whatever is "told" to them is almost merely listened (heard) to, and whatever they feel feasible they enact upon it. The result is the main agent acting in the sub-system of education of teachers, assumes a very subordinate and subservient role. Teacher educators, instead of demanding anything on their own seem to accept whatever is suggested, and that too in an indifferent way. As a result, the policy-makers who are not always academicians by profession remain free to take any action they want. The result is that a professional's competency is never fully reflected in the process of educational reforms of teacher education, and the "stagnancy" has become the chief characteristic of the sub-system of the teacher education. The impact of the teacher educators' organisation is not being felt in the policy decision, as it should really do.

On the basis of the analysis done so far with respect to the cluster of factors that initiate, sustain, disturb or uproot the educational reform, the following picture emerges :

The cluster of initiating factors and sustaining factors could not be found. However, the cluster of disturbing and uprooting factors could be located. They include factors such as lack of preparation of soft and hardware for implementing the reform; lack of feedback mechanism, lack of participation of teacher educators, lack of assurance regarding the fulfilment of requirements of logistics of the reform, haphazard implementation of the reform; no faith in the utility of the reform; no mechanism to evaluate and control inefficiency of the reform; no professional or administrative control over the compromise made; and the acceptance of below standard ways and methods of completing a task. The vicious circle of incompetency and of shortage of men and materials of the right quality, and of lack of motivation for quality work entailing continuous hard work and faith at the larger national level create the ethos full of insecurity and indifference. This also affects the role performance of institutes and men working in education of teachers.

B. Relation between scope of public's participation in decisions and the reforms in teacher education

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the scope of the public's participation in decision-making has continuously expanded in the last 60 years. How has it affected the educational reform in teacher education? The answer is in the change of demand for education due to our constitutional commitment and social policy. The expansion of education at primary and secondary levels that we have experienced continuously has created a great demand for teachers. And this has indirectly created a demand for more and more training colleges. So the force of this social demand is such that qualitative expectations of our College of Education could never come into operation; and "pre-service" education to those already in "service" became a fact, especially for the first two decades after independence. The opening of more primary training colleges in the late fifties and secondary training in the late sixties are pointers in the matter.

The University is never in the picture; the Department of Education always decides more about the college of education.

Therefore, research is less stressed and experimentation and innovative practices are less in vogue. The normal tendency is to appoint a Commission for study; the Commission consists of stalwarts in the field; however, the time for research for the Commission's work is not provided; and when the changes are suggested, the Government accepts only those of the recommendations which suit the purse, and which are not detrimental to the day-to-day working of the ruling party. As a result of this short-sighted outlook kept in view in initiating changes, the Commissions' studied reports adorn library shelves, and they never see the light of day. Thus the democratic option of changing the existing structure in a peaceful but scientific way by following evaluative approach is never practised. The patience and hard work required for bringing about changes of any significant order do not come forth, and the entire atmosphere is filled with an air of despair and indifference. Every now and then new ways to renovate the teacher education are suggested but money and mainly the required energy to kindle the confidence of the teacher educators is not put in on a large scale.

For bringing about reforms in any system, the men therein must be reformed; this attitudinal aspect is almost totally neglected in the reforms of teacher education. The teacher educators and the prospective teachers both need to be cared for and more inputs need to be put in the orientation of teacher educators at all levels. The study of educational reforms in teacher education in the last sixty years has unmistakably located teacher educators' lethargy and indifference as a continuing factor which needs utmost attention for the well-being of the entire educational system, and ultimately that at the national level, because quality of the teachers is the mark of the quality of the nation in its ultimate analysis.

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Implementation of the 10+2+3 Pattern of Education in Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka and Maharashtra State

S. B. Gogate

Introduction

Reorganisation of the structure of education has been a subject of enquiry and recommendation by many educational commissions in the country beginning from the Calcutta University Commission, 1917-19. In spite of the recommendations of various committees and commissions, the entire country could not agree to a uniform pattern of education, viz. the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern, due to various reasons. It is, therefore, necessary to study the recommendations of the various commissions of education, the causes why structural changes could not take place and the position as it exists today regarding the pattern of education in the country. An attempt will also be made to explain the important features of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern.

Structural Changes in the Pattern of Education

Whenever a structural change is to be introduced in the pattern of education, the following factors are generally involved :

- (i) The psychological reactions of people for any major change in the structure of education.
- (ii) The cost involved in implementing the change in the structure.
- (iii) Availability of teachers and other resources necessary for change in the structure.
- (iv) Training of teachers, if necessary, for change in the structure where the contents of courses taught and their orientation also get modified.
- (v) Orientation of officers of the government entrusted with the work of educational administration and that of managers of institutions operating schools and colleges in the case of institutions conducted by private managements.

When we consider all these factors, it becomes very clear that change in the pattern of education is an exceedingly difficult task. Moreover, whenever a change is to be introduced at all levels of education, viz. the primary, the secondary and the collegiate level, it takes between 15 to 20 years to see the change through.

In the implementation of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education, almost all the levels of education were affected. States which had a 10-year SSC programme did not necessarily have a 2-year intermediate course and a 3-year degree course, while many states which did not have a 10-year SSC course had a 11-year SSC course. As such, states which had a 10-year SSC course had to modify their courses of higher education and those states which had a 11-year SSC course, had to modify even the SSC examination course. In all these changes, thousands of students, teachers and members of the general public were involved. Due to the addition or deletion of particular class at a particular level, not only the variation in cost was involved but downward migration of teachers was also involved. For these reasons a change in the structure of the pattern of education has been considered a difficult task by most education commissions. However, different patterns of education in various states in the country had led to a lot of diversity in education. This resulted in an unfair competition between the graduates coming out of the universities located in various states. It was, therefore, necessary to have a common pattern of education throughout the country.

Before undertaking a historical survey of the recommendations of the various commissions of education, it would be worthwhile to study the condition as it prevailed in the various states of the country as also in various union territories in relation to the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education during the academic year 1982-83.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------|
| 1. Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal, Orissa, Goa, Delhi, Nagaland | Adopted 10+2+3 |
| 2. Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Punjab, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh | Adopted 10+2 but not +3 |

This explains the duration of education upto the end of the first degree course in various states and in Union Territories and also explains whether the states had introduced the new pattern of education in toto.

Prior to 1966, the year in which the Education Commission (Kothari Commission) recommended a uniform pattern of education, nine States and four Union Territories had a 14-year course; other nine States and four Union Territories had a 15-year course, while three States and one Union Territory had a 16-year course. When it was decided to adopt the new

pattern of education, all the states were expected to adopt it within a reasonable period of time. Most states had agreed to follow this pattern by about 1975. However, it would be seen that almost all the States which previously had a 15-year pattern upto the end of the first degree course have adopted the new 10 + 2 + 3 pattern. Similarly, the States which had a 16-year pattern earlier have shed one year of their course and have fallen in line for the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern. However, out of the nine States and four Union Territories which had a 14-year course upto the first degree, hardly two states and four Union Territories have followed the new pattern of education *in toto*. Most of these States are Hindi-speaking states and the pattern they have followed is 10 + 2 + 2. Politicians and educationists from these States have started mentioning the new pattern as 10 + 2 pattern as they do not agree with the latter part (i.e. the + 3) of the pattern. In most of these states, they have introduced a general degree course of two years and a special degree course of three years' duration so that most of the children are able to get their first degree at the end of 14 years and those who want to secure a special degree or honours degree have to spend one year more. It now appears that almost all States have their matriculation or the SSC examination at the end of 10-year of schooling and by and large, all the States have adopted the + 2 course though the content of the course has been different from State to State. As already said earlier, half the States in the country have not introduced the 3-year degree course and as such, it could be said that the States which were following a 14-year course are not ready to add one year to their course and add their expenditure on education.

If the above background is properly understood, it would be easy to know why, in spite of the recommendations of the various bodies, committees and commissions, it has not been possible for all the States to adopt a uniform pattern of 10 + 2 + 3. A review of the recommendations of the various commissions and committees of education beginning with the Calcutta University Commission has been undertaken in the following paragraphs.

Calcutta University Commission, 1917-1919

At the time of the appointment of this Commission, the Matriculation examination which marked an end of school course and also constituted an entrance examination to the Universities was held in different states at the end of 10-12 years of schooling. This examination was followed by a 2-year intermediate course at the end of which another public examination, an intermediate examination was held. Then came a two-year period of undergraduate education after which the first degree examination was held. All these three examinations, -matriculation, intermediate and first degree-were held by universities. The Commission examined in depth the

content of education at the intermediate stage and the under graduate stage and recommended that the higher secondary education required reorganization. The Commission recommended that the intermediate classes in the university be transferred to institutions of a new type to be known as intermediate colleges and these to be organised and conducted according to the methods appropriate for school work. The change was necessary to meet the needs of those who did not want to proceed further than the intermediate stage and for those who required more carefully planned vocational courses. The commission observed that the intermediate stage was really a part of the school course and that the students at this stage could be more effectively taught by school methods and that the first degree in India was not really comparable to the first degree in any of the advanced countries. The Commission, therefore, recommended that the dividing line between the university and the secondary courses be drawn at the intermediate examination rather than at the matriculation examination.

Sargent Commission, 1944

The Central Advisory Board of Education in India in 1944 published a comprehensive report on the post-war educational development of the country. This was the first systematic and national level attempt to tackling the problems of education as a whole. This Commission had recommended two types of high schools, academic and technical. According to the Commission, the academic high schools were to impart instruction in humanities and pure sciences while the technical high schools were to provide training in the applied sciences and industrial and commercial subjects. Though the Sargent Commission did not specifically recommend any change in the pattern of education, it certainly recommended technical or vocational education in schools.

The University Education Commission, 1948-49

The Government of India under their Resolution No.55.5/47-B/V dated 4th November, 1948, appointed the University Education Commission under the chairmanship of Dr. S. Radhakrishnan to report on Indian University education and suggest improvements and extensions that may be desirable to suit the present and future requirements of the country. The Commission submitted its report in 1950 and made the following recommendations about the pattern of education :

- (i) Students should be admitted to the University course after they had completed 12 years of study at a school and at an intermediate college.
- (ii) Each state should establish well-staffed intermediate colleges with classes 9-12 or well-staffed schools with classes 6-12.
- (iii) The Commission felt that the lengthening of the intermediate course

to 3 years preceded by an intensified preparation at the earlier stage would result in a considerable improvement of standards in higher education.

This Commission had considered the improvements and extensions which were desirable in university education. It suggested that a Commission be appointed to undertake a similar job in respect of secondary education.

The Government of India accepted this suggestion and appointed a Secondary Education Commission in 1952. The recommendations of the University Education Commission in regard to the pattern of education, therefore, were not given any serious consideration by the government pending the report of the Secondary Education Commission.

Secondary Education Commission, 1952-53

On 23rd of September, 1952, the Government of India appointed a Secondary Education Commission under their resolution No.F. 9.5/52-B-1 under the chairmanship of Dr. A. Lakshmana Swami Mudaliar to enquire into and report on the then position of secondary education in India in all its aspects. The Commission submitted its report in September 1953. In its recommendations on the new pattern of secondary education, the Commission recommended as under :

- (i) The education of a child should include 4-5 years of primary education, 3 years of middle or secondary education and 4 years of higher secondary education.
- (ii) The then intermediate stage should be replaced by higher secondary stage which should of 4 year, duration and should be followed by the first degree course of 3 year, duration.

The Commission had also recommended that for those who passed out of high schools, there should a provision for a pre-University course of one year during which period the scheme of study should be so planned that due regard to the needs of the degree or professional course is shown by students and special emphasis is placed on the quickening of intellectual interests.

The recommendations of the Commission were not implemented in toto. The intermediate course was broken up in two parts and the first year was either added to the school stage or converted into a pre-university or pre-degree course of one year and a second year was added to the two-year undergraduate course leading to the first degree to create a three-year degree course. This was an unfortunate decision dictated by the compulsion of economy rather than the logic of academic reform.

As a result of the recommendations of this Commission, many States started multi-purpose courses in secondary and higher secondary classes.

But these courses were not self-sufficient in the sense that at the end of the higher secondary course of multipurpose education, students were not able to get any opening in the world of work. As such, those who completed the multipurpose course continued to join the traditional Arts, Science and Commerce courses. Similarly, all schools could not be converted into multipurpose schools and as such, multipurpose education was limited to a restricted area where either the government or the schools could spend on purchase of equipments and construction of buildings. All the States in the country did not follow the recommendations of the Commission uniformly. The expenditure incurred by some States like Madhya Pradesh proved to be a sheer waste of funds.

It could be seen from the above that the recommendations of both Radhakrishnan Commission and the Mudaliar Commission on the pattern of education and the length of secondary and first degree education were not implemented. On the contrary, the creation of pre-university course and different types of multipurpose schools led to a lot of confusion which could not be corrected during the next 20 years. State governments implemented the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission only partially. States which had a 14-year course either selected a 10 + 2 + 2 or a 10 + 1 + 3 pattern but did not increase the length of the course to 15 years. States which had a 15-year course selected 11 + 1 + 3 course. Universities like the Bombay University did not change the century-old 4-year degree course. In some states the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission led to four different types of schools, viz. High Schools, Higher Secondary Schools, High Schools with multipurpose course and Higher Secondary Schools with multipurpose course. Moreover, the length of education up to the first degree in various States remained the same, i.e. 14-years, 15-years or 16 years and thus no uniformity was achieved.

Education Commission, 1964-66

The Government of India appointed a Commission on Education and National Development under the chairmanship of Prof. D.S. Kothari to undertake a comprehensive review of education in all its aspects in the country and to make recommendations on these aspects. The Commission was particularly appointed to advise the government on the national pattern of education and the general principles and policies for the development of education at all stages and in all its aspects. The Commission took a comprehensive approach to educational reconstruction. It also attempted to project a new pattern of a national system of education in the country. The Commission discussed in detail almost all the aspects of higher secondary education, viz., (i) the higher secondary pattern, its structure and uniformity; (ii) courses corresponding to the higher secondary stage; (iii) vocationalisation at the higher secondary classes; (iv) proper articulation between the different stages of educational development; (v) professional

preparation of teachers in higher education; (vi) admission to higher secondary education and university education; (vii) curriculum and special areas at the higher secondary stage; (viii) higher secondary examination during the transition; and (ix) vocational education.

The following is the summary of the recommendations of the Education Commission, or the Kothari Commission, particularly in respect of the structure of education and the new pattern of education :

- (i) 1 to 3 years of pre-school education;
- (ii) 7 to 8 years of primary education;
- (iii) lower secondary stage of 3 or 2 years;
- (iv) a higher secondary stage of 2 years; and 1 to 3 years of vocational education;
- (v) a higher educational stage having a first-degree course of 3 years or more to be followed by the second degree or research degree.

The Commission had observed that there was a general desire that the then confusing variety of patterns of school and higher education should be ended. The Commission had also to consider the popular belief that the total period of educational course and of education at different stages had a strong bearing on the quality of education imparted in schools and colleges. If there was uniformity in the educational pattern and an extension in the total period of schooling, the Commission felt it would be possible to bring about a general rise in the standard of education of pupils. These contentions, according to the Commission, were of considerable importance.

The Commission felt that the concept of a national system of education was increasingly linked with the adoption of uniform educational pattern and a belief, therefore, had grown that such a uniformity was essential for raising the standards of education. Many educationists who had appeared before the Commission were of the view that the higher secondary pattern which was recommended by the Mudaliar Commission was not given a fair trial. They also felt that frequent changes of policy with regard to educational structure were undesirable and that instead of experimenting with a new pattern, it was desirable to implement the higher secondary scheme itself more effectively all over the country. The Commission, therefore, suggested a flexible educational structure. It expected that at the end of 10 years of education, a large proportion of students would step off the school system and enter working life, some more would step off the stream of general education and enter vocational courses whose duration would be one to three years and the remaining will continue further in the stream of general education.

The Commission recommended that the pre-university course needed to be transferred from colleges to schools and the duration of the course had to be lengthened to two years uniformly all over the country. The Commission recommended that these reforms be implemented in two stages. In the first stage, the pre-University, intermediate or junior college course be transferred from higher education to school education in a period of 10 years. In the second stage their duration should be lengthened to two years and this stage should be achieved in 15-year period beginning with the Fifth Five-year Plan which started in 1971. The Commission strongly emphasized that the pre-University course, irrespective of its duration, had first to be transferred to schools on a higher priority basis.

The Commission emphasized the need to vocationalise higher secondary education and to extend the vocational courses to cover about half of the total enrolment at the higher secondary stage. The Commission felt that a large variety of terminal courses could be organized varying in duration from one to three years. They could include courses for the training of primary and pre-primary teachers, courses conducted by the ITIs for a large number of trades, courses in agriculture and courses in industry which would include training the middle-level of persons needed, courses for secretarial work and courses in home science. The Commission felt that the introduction of such courses would make secondary education merely terminal.

The Commission stressed the need of professional preparation of teachers in higher education. It felt that it was the responsibility of the universities to provide for the professional initiation of teachers. The Commission recommended that orientation courses in content and methodology were necessary for teachers teaching at higher secondary level as also at the college level.

The Commission envisaged selective admissions in view of the limited resources which were available for education. It was very much opposed to unrestricted admissions to higher education. It felt that by adopting positive measures to promote equalisation of opportunities such as grants, scholarships, etc., the underprivileged sections of the society could very well be given an opportunity to undergo higher education. The Commission felt that for these sections of the community, a suitable system of reservation of seats be adopted but the total enrolment in higher secondary and University education be restricted by relating it to broadly determined national goals for trained manpower. It was necessary for this purpose to introduce vocational and professional courses at higher secondary and at collegiate levels.

After the completion of 10 years of schooling leading to the SSC examination, the special interests and abilities of students are generally formed. With a good system of guidance and counselling, students can be

helped in the choice of their future career on educational courses. An extensive and varied programme of vocational education should be provided at this stage. The Commission, therefore, recommended that diversification was necessary at the higher secondary level for the development of special academic interest of students. The Commission recommended that students should be required to take any two languages, including a modern Indian language or a modern foreign language or a classical language, and any three subjects out of the list of subjects like history, geography, etc. It also expected the students to undergo instructions in work experience, physical education and education in moral and spiritual subjects.

The Commission emphasised that those who wanted to study science had to take all the three electives from the science group of subjects consisting of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geology, and Mathematics. The Commission recommended that some subjects of science should be combined with subjects like Economics. About the teaching of science, the Commission recommended that it would be worthwhile to have a few secondary schools attached to some of the Universities for the purpose of experimenting with a dynamic school programme under the supervision and guidance of the University faculties.

As already mentioned, some states had 11-year secondary courses and some other states had 12-year courses. If the pattern of higher secondary course was to be introduced in each state, in the states where there were 11 year courses and where there were two public examinations, one at the end of 10th and the other at 11th, there would be three external examinations at the end of 10th, 11th and 12th. The Commission recommended that the number of public or external examinations should not be increased and that there should be only two public examinations, one at the end of 10th and the other at the end of 12th.

Due to the political situation in the country prevailing after 1966, a comprehensive report like that of the Report of the Education Commission was not considered as a package but was dealt with piecemeal. Some of the recommendations of the Commission, other than those related to the pattern of education, however, was given due importance in the national policy of education.

Another point is also worth noting. The Radhakrishnan Commission recommended a 12-year schooling and a 3-year degree course and thus suggested a 15-year pattern upto the end of the first degree. The Mudaliar Commission, however, did not specifically suggest so and thus gave a lease to the 14-year courses. The Kothari Commission, however, recommended a 15-year pattern. This Commission did more for making this pattern a reality than any preceding Commission. It can be said that the problem of pattern of education became a political problem between the states following 14-year courses and those following 15-year courses.

National Policy Statement on Education, 1968

In the National Policy Statement on Education, which was announced in the Parliament by the Education Minister in 1968 and which was published in the form of a booklet, the Government of India announced the following :

"It will be advantageous to have a broadly uniform educational structure in all parts of the country. The ultimate objective should be to adopt 10 + 2 + 3 pattern, the higher secondary stage of two years being located in schools, colleges or both, according to local conditions."

"Considering the key role which education, science and research play in developing the material and human resources of the country, the Government of India will, in addition to undertaking programmes in the central sector, assist the State Governments for the development of programmes of national importance where coordinated action on the part of the states and the centre is called for."

Other important bodies which had recommended a Uniform 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education

The Central Advisory Board on Education comprising of Minister of Education, State Ministers, State Secretaries, Directors of Education, etc. in its various meetings upheld the idea of a uniform pattern of education. Besides this committee, the Panel of Education of the Planning Commission, the Vice Chancellors of the Universities in India, All India Council for Secondary Education and the State Education Ministers' Conference held from time to time had upheld the introduction of a 10 + 2 + 3 as a national pattern of education.

Objectives of 10 + 2 + 3

The 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of school and college education was designed to achieve the following :

- (1) The 10 + 2 + 3 provides an opportunity and a means to modernise and strengthen school and college curricula and to restructure them on more scientific lines.
- (2) A broadly uniform pattern in all States and Union Territories will facilitate implementation of educational programmes, production of books and reading materials and teaching aids, training of teachers and their movement, reconstruction of syllabi and improvement in examination practices.
- (3) It will remove difficulties in the matter of education of children of the mobile population, which is continuously increasing in the country.

- (4) A broadly uniform pattern all over the country will strengthen national integration.
- (5) It will provide an opportunity and means to introduce appropriate vocationalisation at the higher secondary stage.
- (6) In the new pattern, the students will be mature enough to take a decision about a particular stream to be studied by them in + 2.
- (7) It will send more knowledgeable and mature students to the universities.
- (8) It will reduce pressure for admissions on universities and other centres of higher education.
- (9) It will contribute to raise the general standard and quality of education at all stages of school and university.
- (10) It will help to solve educational problems of the minorities as the minority language books produced in one area can be easily used in all other concerned schools / areas.

Important features of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education

The following are some of the important features of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern :

- (1) The duration of primary-secondary education should be 10 years all over the country and the first public examination should be held at the end of this stage.
- (2) The 10-year secondary education should be followed by 2 years of higher secondary education.
- (3) The higher secondary education should be a pre-requisite for admission to professional education and education for the first degree. The duration of the first degree should be 3 years.
- (4) Except for professional degrees, the first degree education should be completed within 15 years of school and college education.
- (5) By attaching higher secondary courses to the present secondary schools, the schools should be upgraded.
- (6) There should be provision for vocationalisation during the + 2 years. Thus, a large number of students would leave academic courses and pursue vocational courses.
- (7) If a large number of students pursue vocational courses, the pressure on Universities would be lessened.
- (8) Due to the inclusion of + 2 stage in secondary education, the standard of school education would be raised which in turn would raise the standard of university education.

- (9) Introduction of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern will enable the Government to control expansion of education through selective admissions.
- (10) There should be general education upto the end of the 10th and there should be specialisation from 11th. Students would be mature at 11th to make a selection of specialisation.
- (11) The new pattern would enable schools to prepare their gifted students for the university courses.
- (12) Standards of higher education will improve as the students going to university stream would be more mature.
- (13) 3-years degree course would be better than the 2-year degree course followed in certain states, and as such there would be an improvement in the standard of instruction at the first degree level.

Basic academic considerations in 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education

Shri Nurul Hasan in his article "New Pattern of School Education" expressed the following views on the matter :

- (1) In all advanced countries a student entering a university is expected to be 18 years of age. At this age he can study on his own, he is ready to undertake a course of higher learning. This necessarily implies a duration of 12 years in schools. If children enter the college after the tenth, they would be at the most 14-15 years of age. They are really children at this age and should remain in school and continue to be taught by methods appropriate to the school stage.
- (2) The duration of secondary education courses should be 12 years with seven to eight years of elementary education and four to five years of secondary education. However, secondary education should not be an integrated continuous process. It must end at +10. If it is continuous, secondary stage would expand unnecessarily which would be undesirable. There should be two distinct streams in the +2 stage; academic leading to University education and vocational leading to professional courses or terminating at that stage.
- (3) The Education Commission was not in favour of the existing seven different streams like Humanities, Science, Technical, Agricultural etc., because the course content of these streaming was weak and the courses were not technical. They did not even prepare students for admission to corresponding vocational courses at the

University stage. The Commission, therefore, recommended only Humanities, Social Sciences, Sciences and Commerce as optional subjects at the higher secondary stage.

- (4) In the old days, Mathematics and Sciences used to be neglected. Students could leave these subjects at the SSC. This resulted in 50% students leaving these subjects. In modern world based on science and technology, adequate knowledge of Science and Mathematics is essential. Otherwise there would be two cultures, viz. Humanities and Sciences. In a socialistic society, vertical mobility of industrial or agricultural worker would be possible only if he has minimum training in Science and Mathematics. The Education Commission, therefore, recommended that teaching of Science and Mathematics should be obligatory till the end of Class X. To avoid any undue difficulty for students, the CABE recommended that transfers from one stream to other should be possible.
- (5) There is a greater demand for specialisation as well as for general education to enable the younger generation to face successfully the complex societies of the modern period. There is also a greater demand for interdisciplinary courses and for the provision of greater elasticity to students to choose the subjects to match their capacities and interests. Moreover, there is greater emphasis on providing practical experience, field work, project-oriented studies, etc. in modern education.

A degree with two year's duration will be very much inadequate for all these modern demands. It is, therefore, necessary to increase the length of the first degree to three years.

Some Misconceptions about the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern

Shri Nurul Hasan also pointed out to the following misconceptions about the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern :

- (i) Some people felt that the arithmetic of 10+2+3 was more important than the substance of the reforms. It is not correct. It is the scheme of vocationalisation and improvement of standard of education at all levels which are more important than mere arithmetic.
- (ii) No other country in the world has followed such a pattern of education. Every country should have its own pattern.
- (iii) The adoption of the new pattern would adversely affect the interest of school and college teachers. This was not true. By the introduction of the new pattern, the standard of schools and colleges would improve and thus the teachers will benefited.

- (iv) The new pattern can be introduced within a year or two. This is not true. If this is done it would be disastrous. A good deal of preparation and planning is necessary. Preparatory work to identify vocational openings, prepare vocational courses, etc. would be necessary.

Draft National Policy on Education

Government of India include the following paragraph about the structure of education in the policy statement circulated in 1979 :

"The educational structure will broadly comprise elementary, secondary and undergraduate stages of education. School education shall be of 12 years' duration and will comprise the elementary and secondary stages. There will be a public examination at the end of the secondary education. The undergraduate stage of education may be of 3 years' duration. However, where a University desires it can have 2 years' pass and 3 years' honours course".

It would be clear from the above that the Government of India, instead of compelling the Northern States to adopt a uniform 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education, has allowed them to have 2 years' pass course and 3 years' honours course. Following this recommendation of the Government, most of the Northern States have stuck to 10 + 2 + 2 pattern or a 14-year pattern by not modernising or revising their first degree course from 2 years to 3 years. However, almost all the southern states have adopted the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education.

The new pattern of education was introduced in Southern States around 1970 and most of the remaining states around 1972-75. In many states the curriculum that was framed earlier was found to be heavier by students and teachers, particularly by teachers. The curriculum was made lighter as soon as the feedback was received from schools. The relevance of the curriculum has always been the focus of the new pattern of education. In any case the colleges have found that with the introduction of new pattern of education, the quality of students admitted to university courses has certainly gone up.

SECTION

II

Introduction of + 2 courses in Andhra Pradesh

Andhra Pradesh was formed around 1959. At that time Andhra had the old Madras SSLC of XI years, plus PUC of one year, followed by a three-

year degree course. Old Telengana, which was formerly a part of the Nizam state, had SSC of XI years and PUC and a three-year degree course. However, the situation in both the regions was not the same. In Telengana there were multipurpose high schools having multipurpose courses from IX to XII. It was necessary to have a uniform pattern in the state. Prior to the recommendations of the Mudaliar Commission report, the educational structure was 11 + 2 + 2; it then became 11 + 1 + 3. To adopt a uniform structure and pattern of education throughout the state, an integrated syllabus common for the entire state was introduced in class I in 1959-60 and progressively thereafter. In 1964, the state government convened a high level conference to consider all aspects of structure and pattern of education. This conference suggested a fifteen-year structure of education consisting of a five-year primary stage, two-year upper primary stage, three-year first degree stage with two public examinations, one at the end of X and the other at the end of XII common to the entire state. The conference also recommended that the two-year Higher Secondary Course be located in colleges as also in selected secondary schools with the same syllabus and one examination for the entire state to be conducted by an independent board. The state government accepted these recommendations and adopted the new structure and pattern. The first batch of students appeared at SSC(X) in April 1969 and the batch at HSC(XII) in April 1971. The + 2 course was considered as a linking course between 10 and 3. The + 2 course was named as intermediate course. This course was located in junior colleges. This new course replaced the former higher secondary/multipurpose scheme in secondary schools and the one-year PUC in degree colleges. For + 2 courses, an Act of Legislature was passed. Teachers appointed at + 2 stage were designated as junior lecturers as clearly distinguished from teachers of degree colleges.

After the introduction of + 2 courses, these classes were either attached to schools, or to degree colleges or in independent institutions designated as junior colleges. When junior colleges were established, 100 degree colleges had PUC and were about to suffer because of closure of PUC classes. As such they are allowed to have junior college classes attached.

Only two agencies conduct junior colleges, Government and private. Former Zilla Parishad and Municipal Schools were upgraded as junior colleges and were taken over by the state Government.

To begin with an *ad-hoc* Board of Intermediate Studies was created in March 1969. By an Act of Legislature, this was made a statutory body and was named as "Andhra Pradesh Board of Intermediate Education" with effect from January, 1971. This Board deals with all academic matters pertaining to the Intermediate Course and also conducts the examination. Telugu has been adopted as the medium of instruction for the intermediate

course throughout the state. Permission has also been made for other media. Vocational courses were not introduced in the state, as such those who passed X joined XI and XII as a matter of routine and also joined degree colleges as a matter of routine.

Master's degree in the subject has been considered to be the minimum qualification for being appointed as lecturer in a junior college. Since persons with the same qualifications appointed as lecturers in senior colleges started getting the UGC scale of Rs. 700-1600, there was discontent among lecturers in junior colleges. They have been agitating during the last few years.

The Government of Andhra Pradesh pays 100 per cent grant to junior colleges towards teachers' salaries and a non-salary grant of Rs. 7,500-10,000 per year to each college. This amount is not adequate to any college. To enable private colleges to meet these expenses the state Government allows these colleges to charge students double the fees and to retain half the fees for non-salary expenditure. However, children from Telengana area and other rural areas are not able to pay higher fees. It is only in Hyderabad-Secunderabad cities and in Andhra area that children are able to pay double the fees. Junior colleges from rural and poor areas, therefore, suffer and are not able to spend on capital items.

In Andhra State, the SSC Board and the Intermediate Board control SSC(X) and +2 courses, universities control degree and post-graduate education while the Director of Secondary Education and Director of Higher Education have administrative control over school education and education at +2 level respectively. There is no coordination between these bodies. Vacations, dates of examinations, dates of opening and closing of terms are different for high schools, junior colleges and senior colleges. This leads to utter confusion and composite colleges suffer.

Students from Andhra Pradesh find it difficult to migrate outside the state as examinations of X, XI and XII are not held equivalent by boards of other states. There is a lot of heart-burning among Andhra Pradesh officials because of this. Officials particularly mentioned that Bombay University usually turns down a student of XII of AP who seeks admission to the first year of that university. Officials of Andhra Pradesh Board feel that there has to be a resolution at the national level to establish equivalence between X, XI and XII of different Boards in the country.

When a few principals of government colleges were approached, they opined that Government colleges do not possess enough equipment and other facilities; the +2 course has become a mere continuation of Xth due to absence of proper vocationalisation; there has been a lot of indiscipline among teachers due to their discontent about the work-load and scales of

pay; there have been no orientation programmes for teachers of +2; the Intermediate Board has done nothing to improve the evaluation system; and admission to XI and XII be restricted on merit.

Andhra Government's policy of allowing people to start Junior Colleges is very liberal. The present practice is as follows : Unemployed youth holding post-graduate degrees come together, fulfil Government requirements by forming a trust or a society and start a junior college without adequate academic preparations. Such junior colleges are many and they have brought down the academic standard of +2 education.

Vocational Education : +2 Classes were introduced in the state in 1969-70. Vocational subjects were introduced in 1979-80. In that year these were taught in 22 institutions. In 1983, the number of such institutions was 97, with 1376 students (out of 1.86 lakhs, i.e. less than 1%). Courses offered are in the area of (a) Agriculture and Animal Husbandry; (b) Home Science; (c) Commerce and Business Management; (d) Engineering and Technology; and (e) Health and Para-Medical Courses.

A number of students offering vocational courses is declining in the state. This was lowest in 1982-83. This was due to :

- (a) Lack of vocational guidance.
- (b) Lack of facilities for apprenticeship.
- (c) No recognition to these courses for employment.
- (d) Non-availability of trained teachers.
- (e) Inadequate facilities for self-employment.

During the year 1983-84 the state Government tried to improve the situation by taking the following measures:

- (a) The existing courses were streamlined and consolidated.
- (b) Courses were made more attractive.
- (c) Adequate preparations were undertaken to introduce courses in 1984-85.
- (d) Colleges to whom courses were sanctioned earlier were permitted to start the courses.

Comments : The author of this note during his visit to Andhra Pradesh met Shri M.V. Rajgopal, IAS (Retd.), Formerly Secretary to (Higher Education), AP, Dr. Ishwar Reddy, Head, Deptt. of Education, Osmania University and many others in education department of the state Government. Their views on the +2 level education in Andhra Pradesh were as under :

- (a) Resource constraint is the major problem of +2. As such quality of education at +2 suffers.
- (b) +2 is a qualifying examination. It has a distinct role. As such it has to be given an independent status. Andhra Pradesh's policy of independent Junior Colleges is proper.
- (c) To provide vocational education to a large number of students is very difficult, well-nigh impossible. Kothari Commission's projections on growth of economy and population went wrong.
- (d) Education in AP is practically free. State Government pays scholarships to many castes and sub-castes up to double graduation and also for diplomas beyond that. As such boys and girls from some communities continue to take some education till they are 30. Education becomes employment in the case of these youngsters. Due to free education the number of students taking higher education grows abnormally leading to the growth of institutions.
- (e) Availability of job opportunities has not grown in this country. Even polytechnic and ITI students do not get jobs. How would +2 students get a job? As vocationalisation at +2 was not projected according to manpower needs, it was bound to fail and it actually failed.
- (f) Kothari Commission had recommended restrictions on admissions to XI and XII. This is impossible in a complex Indian social situation. The down-trodden and the neglected got an opportunity for higher education for the first time after independence and also for upward social mobility for the first time. This could not be denied to them.
- (g) Vocationalisation at +2 was not introduced in Andhra Pradesh for about 10 years after the introduction of +2 courses owing to following reasons :
 - (i) Projection of self-employment was exaggerated.
 - (ii) Very few branches of vocationalisation had jobs available.
 - (iii) Very small number of institutions had infrastructure for vocational courses.
 - (iv) There was no vocational education at the secondary level or the university level. As such vocationalisation at +2 level was arbitrary and unnatural.
 - (v) Vocational education and absorption of those who had this qualification could not get legislative backing. It was not, therefore, likely to be successful.

- (h) Government did not show any seriousness or political will to absorb +2 students even in the lowest government jobs. The +2 scheme, therefore, failed.

Introduction of +2 Education in Gujarat

1. Gujarat is constituted by two units, Saurashtra and Gujarat districts. These were formerly constituents of the old bilingual Bombay state. Prior to 1947, all schools and colleges in the state were affiliated to the Bombay University. The Gujarat University, Ahmedabad was established in 1947 while the M.S. University, Baroda was established in 1949. Colleges in this area were affiliated to the new Universities. Prior to 1948-49, in all parts of the present Gujarat state, 11+4 was the pattern of education.
2. As a result of the Mudaliar Commission Report, Pre-Degree or Pre-University classes were started around 1954 and thus the pattern of education was 11+1+3.
3. The 10+2+3 pattern was introduced in the state in 1976. The first batch appeared at SSC(X) in March 1976 and at HSC (XII) in March 1978.
4. The Government of Gujarat established in 1975 a +2 cell for the preparation of the new pattern. The earlier reports, which were submitted to the Government (President of India as there was President's Rule in the state), had suggested that only a few schools be selected for opening +2 classes out of the ones which were ready for +2. Similarly, managements had to promise that they were ready to open vocational courses. Initially, names of 130 schools were finalised for opening +2 classes. In the meantime, popular ministry came into power and the ministry appointed a committee for selection of schools and finally 400 schools were allowed to open +2 classes.
5. Originally schools were to be divided into two types A and B, A schools with academic subjects and B schools with vocational subjects. However, to start with, only Arts, Science and Commerce subjects were introduced.
6. Rural areas found it difficult to attract students for the Arts stream. As such only two streams were formed in 1979-80, the first, the general stream with Arts and Commerce subjects and the other, the science stream. From 1980 a new stream Home Science has been added. Vocational courses have been introduced since 1982.
7. Even when the new pattern was introduced in the state in 1976, the multi-purpose scheme was not discontinued. It was accommodated even in the new set up of subjects. Thus, multipurpose schools continued till 1982. Even now they exist. Children with multipurpose X have a choice of Arts/Commerce or Science stream.

8. In 1982 when it was decided to start vocational courses multi-purpose schools demanded extension upto XII. Thus 60 schools which had the necessary infrastructure for vocational courses (workshops, laboratories etc.) were chosen for vocational courses. In 1983, 20 more schools had been added.

Government has appointed a high power committee to study the problem of vocational courses in the state.

9. All text-books of classes V-XII are prepared by the Gujarat Text Book Board.

10. Gujarat were to revise and upgrade all its courses from 1984. Seminars were held for this purpose which were attended by HSC, College and University teachers. New Syllabi Committees were established. Some members were common. So dialogue started between these levels of teachers. From 1984 there would be new syllabi and new text-books.

11. Teachers were to be trained for new syllabi from October 1983. Syllabi framers and text-book writers would act as Resource Persons. A dialogue will be continued with paper setters and examiners which would lead to a new evaluation system. Model question papers would be prepared.

12. Vocational courses in the state were screened with NCERT help. More skills than information were introduced. Instructional material has also been prepared.

13. (a) Since the introduction of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern, the quality of students entering the University has greatly improved.

(b) However, the Kothari Commission had expected 50% students to join vocational courses. This has not happened.

(c) By attaching +2 class to schools it was thought that the standard of school education would improve. This has not happened. The standard at SSC(X) has not gone up. This has happened because while introducing the new pattern, the level of syllabi at X was lowered.

14. When +2 was introduced in the State, content and methodology training was given to teachers. Some material was prepared. All training colleges have extension departments. They hold orientation courses. The Secondary Education Board also looks after this. Emphasis is on content training. 60% teachers are covered in these programmes. The UGC has given some money to colleges under extension. They have included college-school complex programmes which would be useful for training high-school teachers.

15. Qualified teachers are not attracted to HSC (Science) as the pay scales are low. As such B.Sc. B.Eds. have been teaching at XI and XII. That has resulted in lowering the standards of XI-XII (Science).

16. Every three years text-books are revised. The Text-book Board has now a research wing which would be headed by a person of a professor's rank.

17. The HSC Board has a research officer. He is reduced to a statistical officer. He does not undertake independent research.

18. Government is seriously thinking of attaching XI-XII (Science) to colleges because of the lower standard of science education in schools and due to the idleness of non-viable science units.

This could be considered a retrograde step. Instead, why should not the Government try to improve the quality of science education in schools and why not convert non-viable science units in colleges into community science centres?

19. The grant in aid to +2 institutions is as under.

- (a) 100 grant on salary.
- (b) Grant for non-salary expenditure to the extent of 20%.
- (c) Rs.20,000/- as non-recurring grant to science units at the time of opening the unit.

20. The major problems faced by the Gujarat government are :

- (a) Qualified teachers are not available because B.Ed. is compulsory.
- (b) Laboratory and Library facilities are inadequate in spite of the fact that +2 schools have been sanctioned a separate librarian. Librarians do not function.
- (c) Coordinators in science have been sanctioned. Still the standard does not improve. Coordinators are not effective.

21. The number of students for vocational courses is about 3,500 out of 2,00,000.

22. In the early days of 10 + 2 + 3, the strength in colleges was adversely affected. But colleges were given full protection of grants by the government. Now the problem does not exist. However, Arts faculty is adversely affected due to the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern.

23. Sociological implications of the Kothari Commission's recommendations have to be studied.

The Kothari Commission had relied on the strong historical background than the socio-cultural-economic background. It was also influenced by ideas of Basic Education. That is why the sociological background of vocational education was not emphasised by that Commission and it is because of the very complex social factors that vocational education has not been suc-

cessful. Vocational education recommended by the Kothari Commission did not materialise.

24. The growth rate of industries and employability did not come up as was expected and as such vocational education failed.

25. Even if there are deficiencies in implementing +2, we should not go back to the old pattern. One should correct these deficiencies.

26. Distribution of Papers of various streams :

| General Stream Arts and Commerce | Science | Technical | Arts | Comm. |
|----------------------------------|---------------|----------------|------|-------|
| 1 Language HL | 100 2L HL/LL | 200 L | 100 | 100 |
| Craft | 100 Physics | 150 GK | 50 | 50 |
| 2 Subjects | 200 Chemistry | 150 3 Subjects | 450 | 350 |
| 1 Language LL | 100 Maths. | 150 Electives | 600 | 600 |
| 2 Subjects | 200 Biology | | | |
| 1 Phy. Edn. | 100 Phy. Edn. | 100 | | |
| | Craft | 100 | | |
| | 800 | | | |
| | Only for XI | | | |
| | Not for XII | | | |
| | 1000 XI | | | |
| | 800 XII | | | |

Thus, the load of subjects in various streams is unequal, though certificates of XII for all is the same.

27. (a) Skill-oriented courses have been prepared with the help of NCERT experts. Journalism, Letter-press printing, new syllabus for home science have been introduced.

(b) No school has come forward to accept new courses as they have no infrastructure.

(c) Some conduct vocational courses.

(d) Some schools run career courses.

(e) Separate HSC Board and separate examination board have been established.

(f) Instructional material for teachers for XI has been prepared with NCERT help, which will be applicable for XII also.

28. The main difficulties faced by vocational courses are as follows :

(a) Students do not have opportunities for further education. All brilliant students take the science stream. Though universities say that they would

admit students to science, in reality they are not admitted. Even Agricultural Universities do not admit agricultural students. Middle-level students cannot cope up with the heavy syllabus.

(b) Properly-trained or qualified teachers are not available.

(c) Government has not declared student-teacher ratio and such other things. Policy in this respect is not clear. Institutions are not enthusiastic above any innovations.

(d) Problem of students' placement is there. Syllabus not enough for self-employment.

(e) No employment, no self-employment, no further education possible. This has resulted in frustration. If doors for further education are open, then there would be no problem.

Implementation of + 2 level education in Karnataka State

Karnataka state introduced the new pattern of education as early as in 1971. The first batch of students appeared at X in 1971 and XII in 1973. During the preliminary years of + 2 when terminal vocational courses were not introduced, + 2 stage was a preparatory stage for university education. It, therefore, came to be known as pre-university stage.

In the erstwhile Mysore state (which formed an integral part of the new Karnataka State) there were collegiate high schools in which post-SSLC course was taught. Later on First Arts (FA) was introduced. This was also taught in some selected high schools. Since + 2 stage was a preparation for University courses, it was controlled by the Universities. In the meantime, Universities established intermediate colleges and offered two-year intermediate course. Later the two-year intermediate course was reduced to one-year Pre-University course as a consequence of the introduction of the 3-year degree course. On account of the expansion of education in the rural areas, PUC was provided in some high schools by upgrading them as Higher Secondary Schools. These reduced the pressure on urban institutions. Though PUC was under the control of the University, higher secondary schools were under the control of Director of Education.

When the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern was introduced in Karnataka, there were around 250 higher secondary schools. At this time the Karnataka Government established a Board of Pre-University Education to administer + 2 stage of education. Along with this Board, the Directorate of Pre-University Education was also established in 1971. This new directorate chalked out new courses, prepared new regulations and allowed some institutions to start junior colleges. The position of + 2 Stage in Karnataka state at present is very peculiar. These classes are located at three different

types of institutions, namely, higher secondary schools, undergraduate colleges and independent junior colleges. The position regarding the total number of such institutions, student strength and controlling authority during the year 1982-83 were as under :

| Sr. No. | Category of Institutions | No. of Institutions | Student strength at + 2 | Controlling authority |
|---------|--------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. | Higher Secondary Schools | 257 | 1.59 lakhs | Director of Public Instruction |
| 2. | Colleges | 187 | 74 lakhs | Director of Collegiate Education |
| 3. | Independent Jr. Colleges | 64 | 16 lakhs | Director of PU Education |

In July 1977 Karnataka Government established a separate Directorate of Vocational Education. This directorate independently conducts PUC examination. Thus the administrative control of + 2 (PUC) stage rests with four directorates. Managements and heads of schools have demanded that there should be a single administrative machinery for + 2 Classes.

At the time when + 2 classes were introduced, there was a paucity of teachers with post-Graduate qualifications in schools, so much so teachers from schools were deputed to Universities for post-graduation in their respective subjects at government cost. However, teachers teaching at PUC who were post-graduates did not initially get higher pay scales.

Initially, public examinations used to be held at the end of XI and also at the end of XII. Results at examinations held at the end of XI were not good and a lot of gracing had to be done. This adversely affected the results at XII. The Karnataka Government has discontinued public examinations at the end of XI since 1980.

Cent percent grant is paid on salary of teachers to private institutions conducting + 2 classes. In addition, 5% of a salary grant is paid for maintenance. Government has allowed private colleges to charge more fees to meet non-salary expenditure.

Discussion with some government officials, principals of colleges and teachers revealed the following :

(i) The higher secondary or the + 2 stage assumes greater significance in our educational ladder. It is both a terminal stage and a preparatory stage. Students who complete X (SSC) and seek admission to + 2 stage do it with a desire to continue in the University or enter some gainful employment. So it is at this stage that we must provide for both academic and vocational streams.

(ii) The position of + 2 in Karnataka has been far from satisfactory due to the following factors :

- (a) Faulty location of classes led to either waste of resources or over-crowding in classes;
- (b) Duplicity in administration led to confusion in academic and management matters; and
- (c) Lack of effective supervision, inspection and guidance led to deterioration in standards.

(iii) The introduction of + 2 stage along with its vocationalisation has not brought out any social change or social transformation in the state

(iv) Standard of education at + 2 is extremely low. This may be due to the fact that there are no serious examinations upto Std. X and mass copying takes place at X. Situation at the examination of XII is worse and the results are low. Except in the districts which were formerly part of Bombay state and in the South and North Canara districts, the standard everywhere else is low.

(v) Government of Karnataka allowed new colleges to be opened in recent years. This was a political decision. This would worsen the level of education in the state because educational facilities in these colleges are very poor. There has been no climate of study.

(vi) In government institutions, a lot of political and bureaucratic interference exists. This adversely affects the working of these institutions.

The situation of + 2 in Karnataka being a little confused, the government appointed a Committee under the chairmanship of Prof. D.V. Urs to study the problems of + 2 education in the state. This Committee submitted its report to the Government on 29.4.1980. Karnataka government has not taken any decision on the recommendations of the Committee. The main recommendations of the Committee are as under :

- (i) Government should establish a Board of Higher Secondary Education. All institutions teaching +2 classes (including vocational education) should be brought under the control of this Board.
- (ii) Within a period of 7 years + 2 classes from colleges as also from schools be bifurcated from the remaining classes and be made independent units.
- (iii) All institutions of + 2, including those imparting vocational education, be called junior colleges.

- (iv) All academic matters relating to +2 classes be brought under the purview of the new higher secondary board; all administrative matters of +2 classes be continued to be controlled by the Directorate of Public Instruction and the Directorate of Collegiate Education. Steadily they be brought under the control of the Board of Higher Secondary Education.
- (v) Teachers teaching at +2 have been enjoying different service conditions according to the institution to which they presently belong. Service conditions of such teachers be protected till they continue to teach in these institutions. A separate set of service conditions, however, be prescribed for teachers teaching in junior colleges.

Vocational Education

The Government of Karnataka accepted the scheme of vocationalisation by their order No.ED/TPU/76 dated 12.7.77. Under this order, the State Government accepted the following :

- (i) Introduction of vocational education at +2 level;
- (ii) Appointment of a state level officer as Director of Vocational Education;
- (iii) Constitution of a state level committee for vocational education, syllabus committees and district committees wherever necessary; and
- (iv) Introduction of vocationalisation in three districts, namely, Bangalore, Dharwar and South Kanara as Pilot projects.

As a result of the above decisions, the State Government took the following actions :

- (i) Directorate of vocational education was established in July 1977.
- (ii) Expert state-level committees for four major areas of vocationalisation, viz. Agriculture, Commerce, Technical and Public Health were constituted.
- (iii) A conference of principals of colleges was held on 17.8.1977 to understand their views on vocationalisation at +2 stage.

Government of Karnataka was the second state in the country to take up the scheme of vocationalisation at +2 stage of 10+2+3. It was the first state to establish independent directorate of vocational education.

The maximum number of students for any vocational course was fixed at 25. Admission was open to all those who applied. However, admission test was administered where the number of applicants was more. The Kothari Commission and the NCERT had prescribed 2 languages and 4 other

subjects for being offered at the XI and XII. The Karnataka Government followed the same logic for vocational courses. A student offering vocational subjects at XI and XII has to offer 2 languages and 4 other papers related to only one vocational subject. In all he has to take 6 papers carrying 100 marks each. 50% of the teaching time is devoted to practical work. Karnataka is the only state to adopt this kind of scheme. Vocational courses taught in Karnataka state are terminal in nature and students are generally trained for specific job requirements in government departments, banks, industries etc. The first batch of students belonged to 21 courses taught in 13 colleges from the three pilot districts. 657 boys and 114 girls making a total of 771 appeared at the examination of XII held in June 1979. During the year 1982-83 the enrollment in vocational courses was 3621 students offering 178 courses taught in 99 institutions spread over the entire state. The Karnataka Government has released two reports on vocationalization of education at higher secondary level, the first in 1979 and the other in 1982. NCERT, New Delhi, also undertook a follow-up study of vocationalization of education in junior colleges in Karnataka in January 1979. After going through these reports and after discussing the matter with the officials and non-officials in the state, one gets the following impression on vocational education at +2 stage in the state.

1. The main problems faced in vocationalisation are as under:
 - (a) Students completing XII with vocational subjects are unable to get any employment.
 - (b) Teachers teaching vocational subjects at XI and XII are not confirmed. They get their appointments for one academic year at a time. Qualified persons are not attracted to this job. As such there is a paucity of teachers.
 - (c) There has been no provision for orientation and training of teachers.
 - (d) There has been no provision of teaching similar courses after XII. Students, therefore, feel frustrated if their educational growth gets stunted.
2. Sericulture and electrical wiring are popular subjects, building supervision has been popular in border districts around Maharashtra as students offering these courses get jobs in Kolhapur, Pune and Bombay.
3. The Karnataka Government pays 100% grant on salary of teachers and to the tune of 10% for non-salary expenditure. At the beginning of any course, it pays Rs.11,215 as equipment grant. Managements of institutions have themselves to raise funds for the infrastructure.

4. Examinations held at the end of XI and XII are completely conducted by the Director of Vocational Education, though the classes are conducted in junior colleges.
5. Universities in Karnataka allow students of XII (vocational) to join Arts, Science and Commerce degree courses. However, only 25% to 30% students join traditional courses.
6. Students offering XII (Vocational) do not get any additional credit at the time of admission to medical and engineering courses.
7. Neither the industries in the state nor the Universities have been taking interest in framing continuing vocational courses at +3 stage.
8. Shortage of finance prohibits the expansion of vocational education. Central government does not help the states much. State government cannot afford to spend more money.
9. In Karnataka the syllabi of vocational courses have been prepared by experts in the vocation.
10. There has been no demand for specialised vocational courses like Agricultural Economics, Textile Technician, Material Management Technology etc.
11. Though various directorates have been controlling institutions imparting education at +2 level, there has been no difficulty for the directorate of vocational education to control this aspect of +2 education.

If the vocational courses taught in the state have to be more meaningful and effective, the state government will have to do the following:

1. Consider the diplomas awarded by the State Council of Vocational Education as reorganised qualifications for employment.
2. Delink general degrees from certain jobs for which vocational courses provide appropriate training.
3. Provide for reservation of posts for those doing XII with vocational courses.
4. Request the central government to modify the Apprenticeship Act to provide apprenticeship to students doing XII (vocational) in government as also in public and private sector enterprise.
5. Provide for a scale of Rs.400-900 (a little above the clerks scale) to those doing XII with vocational courses.

Education at +2 level in Karnataka would be more effective if the state Government takes the following steps :

- (a) Accept Urs Committee's report and implement its recommendations;
- (b) Provide more funds for the expansion of vocational education; and
- (c) Accept suggestions 1 to 5 made in the foregoing section.

Implementation of + 2 level education in Maharashtra State

Government of Maharashtra, in its policy statement on education released on 23rd February, 1970, accepted to introduce the 10+2+3 pattern of education in the state. However, the pattern was introduced with effect from June 1975. Prior to 1975, the three regions of Maharashtra, namely, the Western Maharashtra Region (formerly part of old Bombay State), Vidarbha Region (formerly part of Madhya Bharat - Madhya Pradesh state) and the Marathwada Region (formerly part of old Nizam state) had different patterns of education. In western Maharashtra region it was either 11+3 or 11+4 (Bombay University); in Vidarbha and Marathwada it was 10+1+3. In addition Vidarbha had plentiful and multipurpose schools leading to HSC examination held at the end of XI. Marathwada did not have many such schools though the number was not negligible. Government of Maharashtra decided, therefore, to have a uniform pattern of education all over the state and introduced a uniform syllabus for Std.V all over the state in June 1969.

In August 1972, Government of Maharashtra appointed a Committee under the chairmanship of Dr.A.U.Shaikh, a former secretary to Government, Education Department, to examine the various issues arising out of the new pattern of education and to make recommendations. The Committee submitted its report in March 1974. However, the State Government did not take any action on that report.

By its resolution dated 8 August 1974, the State Government informed some secondary schools and colleges (this letter was received by schools and colleges on 21 August 1984) that Government had taken a policy decision to start a Higher Secondary Standard XI from June 1975 in some secondary schools and colleges and government intended to permit some schools to start Higher Secondary XI from June 1975 provided the managements of those schools were prepared to provide all the requirements of the courses and expressed willingness to start these courses. As the state government was keen to finalise the selection of institutions at an early date, schools were requested to place the proposal before their managements and to communicate their decisions on or before 15th September 1974.

Government had hardly given schools and their managements three weeks to consider this vital issue when no school had any exact idea of the nature of courses and the requirements. The syllabi of courses were not as yet ready and still the schools had to make an early decision. Government had further informed schools that if no communication was received from them till 15th September 1974, it would be presumed that the school was not willing to start higher secondary classes.

The above-mentioned government circular came to institutions as a surprise as they were given a period of only three weeks to make up their

mind in the matter. As such, in order to take some organized action, secretaries of some educational managements in Pune and that of the Rayat Shikshan Sanstha, Satara jointly convened a meeting of head masters of schools, principals of colleges and managers of societies conducting these schools and colleges from Western Maharashtra region to discuss the issue and to take a common stand in the matter. The meeting was held on 8th September 1974 at the MED Abasaheb Garware College, Pune and was attended by over 150 representatives of schools and colleges. Prof.D.A. Dabholkar (then the Principal of Fergusson College, Pune) presided over the meeting and the author of this case-study (then the Secretary of Maharashtra Education Society, Pune) was asked by the colleague sponsors to be the convenor of the meeting. The conference prepared working papers mentioning the difficulties the institutions were likely to face if the H.S. classes were attached to them.

The meeting generally opined the restricting the H.S. classes to selected schools and colleges was a retrograde step as opportunity to receive higher education would be denied to many from the rural areas. The meeting criticized the government for introducing higher secondary courses without adequate preparation and with undue haste.

The above meeting was the first organized public protest against the introduction of +2 stage of 10+2+3 without adequate preparation and without the vocational component involved in it. Managers of educational institutions all over the state held a similar view on the introduction of the new pattern.

On 7 February 1975, Government of Maharashtra declared its policy on the introduction of Higher Secondary classes. Government announced the following decisions:

- (i) Classes of XI and XII would be introduced respectively from June 1975 and June 1976. These classes will be located in Secondary Schools or in colleges where facilities existed.
- (ii) Standard XII would be mainly located in colleges.
- (iii) Classes of XI and XII would ultimately be located in secondary schools.
- (iv) Training and orientation programmes for teachers would be organised by the State Institute of Education, Pune.
- (v) For introducing Higher Secondary Courses in Science, Government would pay schools a non-recurring grant of Rs. 15,000/- per year for two years.

Though the policy decision of the Government was announced in early February 1975, Government did not announce the names of schools where the classes of XI were to be located till the middle of May 1975 though the classes were to be started by the beginning of June 1975. The time at

the disposal of schools was very short for strengthening libraries and laboratories and for recruiting adequate and qualified staff. Somehow, schools managed to start these classes by early July 1975. However, due to the restrictions on minimum number of students the classes did not stabilize at some places till the middle of September, 1975. Government had assured to give a grant of Rs.30,000/- for science equipment to schools. It went back on its words and ultimately sanctioned only Rs.85,000/- to a school desirous of opening science stream. The author of this case-study undertook a detailed survey of classes of XI in Pune District during the year 1975-76 and made a number of suggestions to the government to improve the situation.

On February 19, 1976, Government of Maharashtra announced some more important decisions on Higher Secondary Courses. These are as under:

- (i) Higher Secondary classes were designated as Junior College classes.
- (ii) Second-year of Junior college (Std. XII) was to be located in colleges only.
- (iii) There would be only one public examination which would be held at the end of the second year of Junior College (XII)

Thus, Government of Maharashtra gave these classes of XI and XII, an independent status, different from that of a high school or a college. Although the Government had announced to locate classes of XII exclusively in colleges, it had to allow many schools to open classes of XII due to the following situations :

- (i) At a number of taluka places and smaller towns no college was available for Std. XII.
- (ii) In rural areas colleges did not have science stream; however, the rural schools had the science stream.
- (iii) In some cities, schools had provision to teach technical subjects but colleges did not have this provision.
- (iv) There were no night colleges available. However, there were night schools teaching XI.

In June 1977, Government of Maharashtra took a decision to locate both the classes of XI and XII in colleges. However the surplus students who could not be absorbed in colleges were to be accommodated in classes to be opened in schools. Thus the present situation is that the classes of First and Second Year of Junior Colleges (i.e. XI and XII) are located both in schools and colleges. In cities it so happens that children who score better at SSC(X) or those who have some influence with managements of colleges get admitted to XI in colleges; those who do not get admitted to XI in colleges, those who do not either get good score or have no influence have

to enter schools. Facilities available in colleges being much better than the ones available in schools, children attending classes of XI and XII in schools suffer. In rural areas the schools which are not good enough even for their usual classes upto X, have to teach XI and XII and ultimately children suffer.

In the early years of Higher Secondary classes, the enrolment at XI was much less as compared to the old XI and the results of X (SSC) and also of XII (HSC) being stiff, the enrolment in Higher Secondary class as also in the first year of three-year degree course in universities was very low. The situation is steadily improving. Moreover, it has also been observed that students' choice of stream has drastically changed with a very small number joining Arts courses.

When the new Higher Secondary classes were introduced in 1976-77, a few orientation programmes were conducted by the State Institute of Education, Pune for the benefit of teachers of Junior Colleges. These orientation courses could not cover all the teachers teaching in Junior colleges. Recently some universities have introduced Diploma in Higher Education which is a vocational course and which is largely attended by Junior College Teachers. Neither the SIE nor the SSC Board has prepared any material for teachers.

As the Junior College classes are mostly located in colleges and as qualifications required in both sections of colleges are the same, there has been a growing unrest among the junior college teachers whose major demand has been the UGC pay scales. Organisations of Junior College Teachers who are militant, have resorted to trade-union activities and have virtually brought the government to its knees by boycotting examination work at the nick of time.

Administration of Junior College classes has become extremely clumsy. Where these classes are located in colleges, they are indirectly controlled by Universities as basically colleges are affiliated to Universities which have a statutory control over colleges. In addition, Junior college classes are academically controlled by the HSC Board and administratively controlled by the Deputy Director of the Region in which the college is located. In recent years government has imposed stricter control over almost all aspects of colleges and as such even trifles like senior auditor in a district or the officer on special duty in a region can create nuisance to colleges. In the case of Junior College classes located in schools, it is the usual trio, the Parishad Education Officer, the SSC/HSC Board and the Deputy Director of Education of the region who control these classes. Since the introduction of the new grant-in-aid rules under which salary to teachers is fully reimbursed by government, there has been stricter governmental control over all aspects of education and autonomy of institutions has become a myth.

Syllabi which were formed in 1975 remained in operation till 1984. Since 1982, Government has started modifying the syllabi progressively for Std. VIII onwards. XI and XII would have new syllabi in June 1984 and June 1985 respectively.

Vocationalization of Education at + 2 stage

Though + 2 stage of 10+2+3 was introduced in June 1975, vocational courses were introduced in 1978-79 when 19 vocational courses under five groups, viz. technical, agricultural, commercial, catering and food technology and fisheries were introduced. During the year 1978-79, 19 courses were introduced in 33 institutions in 8 districts. 1947 students offered these subjects. In 1980-81 the number of students grew to 12,145.

The Maharashtra state did not introduce vocational education as envisaged by the Kothari Commission or by NCERT but introduced 'Vocational Education' which implied meaningful blending of both education and training. It has a type of pre-vocational education which was expected to increase the employability of students. Government of Maharashtra considered it necessary to start bifocal vocational courses. In this scheme the student was permitted to offer vocational subject in lieu of one language and one optional subject so as to enable him to allow upward social mobility.

The Directorate of Technical Education implemented the scheme to start with, which has now been placed under the Director of Training. It was a significant point that the scheme is managed by technical persons. The State Government pays a recurring grant for implementation of the scheme. The entire expenditure on payment of salary to staff is paid by Government. Institutes are supposed to find resources on their own for meeting expenditure of a non-recurring nature. Courses in 9 districts were introduced on the basis of vocational survey of these districts wherein manpower requirements were estimated. Students offering vocational subjects of a technical nature could avail of the opportunity to continue for Diploma or Degree in Engineering in the appropriate branch. Such students got weightage of marks in the merit list at the time of admission of Engineering courses. There was a provision for reorientation of vocational teachers to acquaint them with the latest developments and modern trends in various vocational fields.

A team for NCERT was appointed in 1980 to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the programme in the state. The NCERT praised the manner in which vocationalisation at + 2 stage was introduced in the state, particularly the way in which institutes were selected for this purpose. However, the team also pointed out the drawbacks in respect of selection of courses, methods of instruction, provision of vertical mobility, instrumental, material and financial assistance.

NCERT team's observations could be summarized as under:

- (a) Maharashtra was the only state which has introduced vocational programmes of "bifocal nature" which is in-built with the general stream. The state has not accepted the terminal nature of these courses.
- (b) A student offering vocational course offers it in lieu of one language and one of the optional subjects. Thus he retains one language and 3 optional courses which could be considered the core.
- (c) Student offering vocational subject devotes a maximum of 30% of his instructional time to vocational subjects. "Learning to Do" recommended that 70 to 75% time be spent on vocational subjects.
- (d) In the case of students offering engineering and agricultural vocational courses, weightage of marks is given at the time of admission to diploma and degree courses. This weightage is not given to other subjects.
- (e) The NCERT team made the following recommendations in the matter :
 - (i) Establishment of Directorate of Vocational Education.
 - (ii) Grants for meeting capital expenditure be paid to institutions.
 - (iii) Some higher secondary institutions be gradually developed into predominantly vocational institutions. If colleges are not available for this purpose, some high schools where infrastructure is available, should be upgraded to good vocational institutions.
 - (iv) Selection of vocational courses in particular areas be based on the survey reports.
 - (v) There is a lot of duplication of courses taught at the +2 level with courses in ITIs and Polytechniques. This be avoided.
 - (vi) Pattern of courses in all vocational subjects is not the same. Some courses have, therefore, become heavy. This be avoided. Syllabus construction work be done scientifically on the basis of job analysis and job satisfaction.
 - (vii) Practical work be modified in relation to job analysis. Practicals for each course should be identified separately.
 - (viii) In many courses, on-the-job training is necessary. Government machinery and Heads of Institutions should collaborate in this.
 - (ix) Teachers teaching vocational subjects should get enough practical training to cope with the situation in the class.
 - (x) Institutes be allowed to appoint enough clerical and menial staff.
 - (xi) Books in English and Marathi be got written in respect of vocational subjects.

- (xii) A few higher level diplomas be started in subjects where further (after +2) avenues are not available.

A specimen indepth study

Author of the present case-study had undertaken on behalf of the IIE and in collaboration with the Swami Ramanand Teertha Research Institute, Aurangabad, a critical study of Junior Colleges in Marathwada in 1980-81. The following is the summary of observations and recommendations.

Observations

- (i) Though +2 classes are located in both schools and colleges, only 10 per cent join +2 classes located in schools. The plight of those 10 per cent in regard to academic facilities, staff and co-curricular activities is miserable. Their performance at HSC std.(xii) is worse.
- (ii) Teachers teaching at +2 level do not have enough knowledge of content as also of teaching methods.
- (iii) Parents get frustrated when they see that education imparted in schools and colleges is not useful in children's life.
- (iv) In most institutions, teaching +2 courses, enough facilities are not available. The provision is worse in rural areas.
- (v) Junior colleges do not have even minimum co-curricular activities.
- (vi) Lot of malpractices take place at the time of examinations. Students, teachers and in some cases managements also are responsible for these malpractices.

Recommendations

- (i) Teachers of +2 institutions urgently need orientation in content and methodology.
- (ii) To ensure sufficient strength at +2 level, efforts be made to improve results of SSC(X) by establishing school-college complexes.
- (iii) To improve results of HSC (Std. XII), every school and college teaching XI and XII should have the following programmes :
 - (a) Coaching classes for retarded students.
 - (b) Free coaching classes for students from weaker sections.
 - (c) Special coaching to bright students.
 - (d) Special orientation lectures for students and teachers.
- (iv) District-wise conference of managers to orient them to modern methods of management.
- (v) Ensure minimum facilities in institutions teaching XI and XII.

Introduction of + 2 level education in Maharashtra : Some comments

1. Maharashtra Government introduced + 2 level courses without adequate preparation. This has adversely affected + 2 level education in rural and under-developed areas.

2. Serious efforts were neither made to orient + 2 level teachers to content and methodology nor to supply instructional material to teachers.

3. Government unnecessarily invited trade-union problems from teachers at + 2 level by attaching + 2 level classes to Arts, Science and Commerce Collages. Had these classes been attached to schools, these problems could have been avoided; in addition quality of school education would have improved.

4. Introduction of bifocal vocational education was a total failure. No doubt it did not create problems for the vocationally trained persons; but it wasted huge governmental and private resources and effort as practically none who took vocational subjects followed those subjects either at the degree level or at the professional level.

5. By attaching + 2 level classes to schools as well as to colleges, these institutions have been subjected to duplicate or even triplicate governmental administrative controls in addition to the control of the managements of these institutions. Administration in these institutions which was of quite a good standard prior to 1975, has deteriorated.

6. In the initial period of + 2 (1975-1980), colleges in urban areas had surplus facilities in relation to space, teaching staff and materials. These facilities were useful to + 2 students, particularly in Science, Humanities and Social Sciences faculties. In rural areas, schools were not likely to have good facilities; as such surplus facilities in colleges were useful to + 2 education.

Statement showing the information regarding
H.S.C. Examination for the year March 1979-83

| Maharashtra State | | | |
|-------------------|----------|--------|------------|
| Year | Appeared | Passed | Percentage |
| March | | | |
| 1979 | 1,02,260 | 63,457 | 62.05 |
| 1980 | 1,15,364 | 62,409 | 54.10 |
| 1981 | 1,41,174 | 73,124 | 51.80 |
| 1982 | 1,53,971 | 85,659 | 55.63 |
| 1983 | 1,66,988 | 81,009 | 48.51 |
| 1984 | 8,220 | 7,860 | 95.62 |
| (Vocational) | | | |

Gujarat State

| | | | |
|------|----------|--------|-------|
| 1979 | 77,243 | 36,736 | 47.56 |
| 1980 | 91,438 | 55,758 | 60.97 |
| 1981 | 86,262 | 58,310 | 67.59 |
| 1982 | 1,18,463 | 70,158 | 59.22 |
| 1983 | 1,17,323 | 61,219 | 52.17 |

(Examination in Vocational subject not held till 1984)

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The 10+2+3 Pattern of Education at National Level

Dr. R. P. Singhal

The Background

1. The adoption of the common pattern of education for school and college classes has been an important educational reform which was first recommended by the Calcutta University Commission (1917-19). That recommendation made a great impression on Indian educational thought and, for a time, it appeared to be on the verge of universal acceptance. But ultimately it was implemented only in one province, namely, the Uttar Pradesh, and that too in a mutilated form because although a two-year intermediate course was introduced after Matriculation, neither the duration of the degree course was raised to three years, nor was the intermediate course modernised and made relevant to the developmental needs.

2. Soon after independence, the University Education Commission (1948-49) discussed the problem again. It came to the conclusion that it was necessary to adopt a uniform pattern of 10 + 2 + 3 for school and college classes. It felt that this pattern would make it possible to vocationalise the secondary stage of education so as to divert students into different walks of life at the end of secondary school and thus reduce pressures on university admissions. It also felt that lengthening of the duration of the degree course will help to raise standards of higher education. The recommendation of the University Education Commission, however, remained unimplemented.

3. In the meantime, in 1944, the Sargent Report recommended eleven-year higher secondary course followed by a three-year degree course, leading to bifurcation of Intermediate course, as it was proposed that class XI be added to the secondary course and class XII to the degree course, making the pattern 8 + 3 + 3, i.e. 8 years of primary and middle classes, three years of higher secondary classes, and three years of degree classes. That pattern was reiterated by the Secondary Education Commission in 1952 as a result of which a decision was taken to develop a national pattern of

school classes covering 11 years of higher secondary and three years for the first degree, i.e. 11+3.

4. The entire position was reviewed once again by the Education Commission (1964-66). At that time there were different patterns of schools and colleges in the country, which may be stated as follows :

Educational Pattern in India

1964-66

| Pattern | Duration for 1st degree | States adopting the pattern | Remarks |
|--------------|-------------------------|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10+2+3 | 15 years | Kerala | + 2 stage located in Junior College. |
| 10+2+2 | 14 years | Uttar Pradesh | Ten-Year school followed by a two-year Intermediate course, and a two-year course for the 1st Degree. |
| 11+3 | 14 years | U.T. of Delhi, Madhya Pradesh | Higher Secondary course of eleven years followed by a three-year degree course. |
| 12+1+3 | 16 years | Assam, Nagaland | 12 years of SSLC followed by a year of PUC and 3 years of degree course. |
| 11+1+3 | 15 years | Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa | School Leaving Certificate of 11 years followed by 1 year PUC and 3 years of degree course. |
| 10 or 11+1+3 | 14 or 15 years | Remaining States | Matriculation or School Leaving Certificate of 10 or 11 years followed by a year of Pre-University course and a 3-years degree course. |

5. The Education Commission considered the merits and demerits of all these patterns and suggested a flexible educational structure covering :

- a pre-school stage of one to three years,
- a primary stage of seven or eight years;
- a lower secondary or high school stage of three or two years in general education and one to three years in vocational education;
- a higher secondary stage of two years of general education or one to three years of vocational education;
- a higher education stage having a course of three years or more for the first degree followed by a course for the second degree or research of varying duration.

6. The National Policy on Education issued by the Government of India in 1968 accepted the recommendations of the Education Commission and stated that "it will be advantageous to have a broadly uniform educational structure in all parts of the country, the ultimate object being to adopt the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern—the higher secondary stage of two years being located in schools, colleges or both according to local conditions". It also stated that the Government was convinced that a radical reconstruction of education on the broad lines recommended by the Education Commission was essential for economic and cultural development of the country, for national integration and for realising the ideal of socialistic pattern of society. It will involve relating education closely to the life of the people, a continuous effort to expand educational opportunity, a sustained effort to raise the quality of education at all stages, and an emphasis on development of science and technology and cultivation of moral and social values.

Objectives of 10 + 2 + 3

7. The 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of school and college education was purported to achieve the following :

- (1) The 10+2+3 will provide an opportunity and a means to modernise and strengthen school and college curricula and to restructure them on more scientific lines.
- (2) A broadly uniform pattern in all States and Union Territories will facilitate implementation of educational programmes, production of books and reading materials and teaching aids, training of teachers and their movement, reconstruction of syllabi and improvement in examination practices.
- (3) It will remove difficulties in the matter of education of children of the mobile population, which is continuously increasing in the country.
- (4) A broadly uniform pattern all over the country will strengthen national integration.
- (5) It will provide an opportunity and a means to introduce appropriate vocationalisation at the higher secondary stage.
- (6) In the new pattern the students will be mature enough to take a decision about a particular stream to be studied by them in +2.
- (7) It will send more knowledgeable and mature students to the universities.
- (8) It will reduce pressure for admissions on universities and other centres of higher education.
- (9) It will contribute to raise the general standard and quality of education at all stages - school, college and university.

- (10) It will help to resolve educational problems of the minorities as the minority language books produced in one area can be easily used in other concerned areas.

Present Position

8. The 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education has now been adopted by all States and Union Territories of India except the following :

- (1) Haryana
- (2) Madhya Pradesh
- (3) Punjab
- (4) Rajasthan
- (5) Himachal Pradesh
- (6) Union Territory of Chandigarh
- (7) U.P.
- (8) J & K

9. The U.P. has adopted the 10 + 2 pattern but it is not followed by a three-year degree course except in the Central Universities. J & K also does not have 3-year degree course.

10. Although the new pattern has been adopted by 15 States and 8 Union Territories, yet seven States and one Union Territory which have not yet adopted it form a major chunk of the country, particularly in the northern and central India. Moreover, some of the States, even though they have adopted the new structure, have not yet been able to modernise their curriculum. The position regarding vocationalisation of +2 is far from satisfactory. This has in fact been a cause of serious concern for the Government of India.

11. It may be recalled that the 10 + 2 + 3 was unanimously accepted in the Conference of Education Secretaries and DPs of the States and in the meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) held in 1972. The Education Ministers' Conference of 1977, in spite of some criticism of 10 + 2 + 3 consequent upon the change of the Government at the Centre, endorsed the guidelines formulated by the Education Ministry regarding the switching over to the new pattern and recommended their adoption to the State Governments which had not yet introduced the new pattern. This was reaffirmed by the then Union Education Minister in Lok Sabha who said that the Government's intention was not to scrap the pattern but to review, modify and reform it. According to a statement made by the Minister of State for Education in Rajya Sabha on 7th August, 1982 the Centre is constantly persuading these States and Union Territories to switch over to the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education. The CABE at its meeting held in June 1983 reiterated the desirability of having 10 + 2 + 3 in all the States and Union Territories and desired that the States which have not yet adopted

it should do so soon. The Government is again exercised over this pattern while the preparation of the VII Five-Year Plan is going on.

The Issues

12. Since a large number of States and Union Territories have adopted 10+2+3 pattern of education for more than five years by now, it will be worthwhile to evaluate to what extent the educational reform of 10+2+3 has succeeded in achieving its objectives. Has the reform succeeded or failed? It may also be useful to know why some of the States and Union Territories have not yet been able to switch over to 10+2+3 despite the fact that it has been accepted as a national policy. In subsequent paragraphs, an attempt has been made to discuss the following questions :

- (1) To what extent have the objectives of introduction of 10+2+3 pattern been realised?
- (2) What are the factors contributing to the success or failure of 10+2+3 pattern in various States?
- (3) What are the causes or difficulties faced by some States/Union Territories in not yet implementing 10+2+3 pattern?
- (4) What suggestions can be made for universal introduction of 10+2+3 pattern throughout the country?

13. During the course of this study, a scrutiny was made of the various reports published by the Government of India and the State Governments from time to time, the proceedings of the meetings of the Central Advisory Board on Education and the Conferences of Education Ministers, Education Secretaries and DPIs, Boards of Education, etc. Opinions on the aforesaid points were also sought from eminent educationists, educational administrators, principals and teachers in different parts of the country through questionnaires, correspondence and informal interviews.

Statewise Status

14. The Government of Assam changed over to 10-year schooling from the year 1974-75. The school curriculum was recast and renewed for all stages, viz. primary (I-IV), middle (V-VII), and secondary (VIII-X). In primary schools modern aspects of science, mathematics and language teaching were introduced in the year 1978. The curriculum at the middle stage (V-VIII) provides for learning of three languages of which two are learnt at the end of class V; the third language is introduced in class VI. At the end of the high school stage (VIII-X), the Board of Secondary Education, Assam, holds the first public examination. The subjects for this examination are : first language, second language, general science, general maths, social studies, work experience and an elective to be offered from a given list. The significant curricular changes at this stage have been :

- (a) making science and mathematics compulsory for all;
- (b) introduction of social studies as a composite subject; and
- (c) introduction of work-experience as a compulsory curricular area.

15. The +2 stage in Assam rests with three different institutions : as Pre-degree under the Dibrugarh University, as Pre-University under the Gauhati University and as Higher Secondary under the Board of Secondary Education, Assam. The Pre-Degree and the Pre-University courses run in colleges whereas the Higher Secondary course runs in schools. The Universities and the Board of Secondary Education, Assam have prepared the curriculum at +2 for academic subjects.

16. In Bihar, the new pattern was introduced in 1979. The Bihar School Examination Board conducted the Secondary School Examination on this pattern at the end of ten-year schooling, for the first time, in 1981. Changes introduced in the syllabi are on the lines suggested by the Education Commission. The curriculum focuses on national integration, training of democratic living and cooperation. It inculcates self-reliance and love for manual work. Science and mathematics are now essential components of the curriculum upto class X. Formerly, more than fifty per cent of the students were deprived of the study of these subjects which are indeed useful in one's daily life.

17. The Government of Manipur has accepted this pattern in principle and necessary preparation is under way for its early implementation. Syllabi have been remodelled to fit them in the new pattern, and new textbook production work is in progress. The start will be made with class IX from 1984-85 by replacing the existing curriculum and by extending it gradually to classes X, XI and XII in due course. The new curriculum has been developed in accordance with the guidelines of the National Council of Educational Research and Training. In the new scheme History and Geography have been replaced by Social Studies which also includes some portion of Civics. As many as four subjects, namely, English, Manipuri, Mathematics, and Science, were put under "try-out" in the academic year 1982 in some selected schools. Socially useful productive work has also been included in the curriculum.

18. The Government of Gujarat has adopted the 10+2 pattern of education from the year 1976-77. For classes XI and XII, it has four academic streams : (i) Common stream (former Arts and Commerce streams have been integrated into the common stream); (ii) Science stream; (iii) Home Science stream; and (iv) Uchhtar uttar buniyadi stream (post-basic higher secondary stream). Vocational courses have also been introduced in plus two. In classes IX and X, it has introduced compulsory craft teaching and supervised self-assignment study.

19. The Maharashtra Board of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education introduced the new pattern in 1972 in class VIII. The first S.S.C. examination according to the new pattern was held in March 1975. The changes introduced in the syllabi for classes VIII, IX and X are :

- (i) science and mathematics have been made compulsory in all schools; and
- (ii) work experience and social service have been made integral components of the new syllabus;

20. The Board has further revised the syllabi for classes VIII, IX and X in the light of the recommendations made by Ishwarbhai Patel Review Committee. The revised syllabi have come into force from the academic year 1982.

21. The new syllabi for class XI were first implemented from the academic year 1975 and for class XII from the academic year 1976. The first H.S.C. Examination according to the new syllabi was held in April 1977. Again, in the light of the revised syllabi for classes VIII to X, the Board has started the process for revision of syllabi of standards XI and XII. The process has been undertaken keeping in view the comments received from the heads of junior colleges, junior college teachers and others concerned.

22. The universities of Maharashtra also are not lagging behind in the process of modernisation and strengthening of their syllabi. The University of Bombay restructured and reorganised its courses leading to the degrees of B.A., B.Sc., and B.Com. in view of the introduction of the 10+2+3 pattern. The following are the salient features of these courses :

- (i) The duration of each of these courses is three years and there is a university examination at the end of each year.
- (ii) The B.A., B.Sc. and B.Com. degree courses are integrated in nature.
- (iii) A foundation course is prescribed for B.A., B.Sc., and B.Com. examinations. This is an "awareness course" aimed at acquainting students with the contemporary socio-economic problems of India and the impact of science and technology on our society.
- (iv) A student for B.A., B.Sc. or B.Com. degree examination has to offer two papers under the applied component group, which are related, as far as possible, to the area of his specialisation. The papers under the applied component group are not job-oriented as such, but they may be of some help in enhancing the prospects of employment as they are applied in nature and are related to the subjects of specialisation.
- (v) A course in rural development has also been introduced as a part of B.A., B.Sc., and B.Com. courses, and the course is fairly popular among teachers and students.

23. It may be said that care has been taken by Maharashtra Government to modernise the existing courses and introduce new courses in the areas related to the needs of the environment and the region, with a view to improving the prospects of employment.

24. West Bengal introduced the new pattern in 1973-74. There is a separate Council for Higher Secondary Education (classes XI and XII). The Council also introduced vocational courses but the number of students offering these courses is going down.

25. The Calcutta University introduced the new pattern in the year 1978-79. The main feature of the new course is that it offers a much free choice of subjects to a candidate. The old rigidity between arts and science streams has been reduced significantly to promote interest in interdisciplinary and employment-oriented approach. In the new scheme, a candidate is now able to choose combinations like Bengali, English, Journalism, History, Philosophy, Economics, Mathematics, Political Science, Physics, Chemistry, Computer Programming, etc.

26. Tamil Nadu introduced the new pattern from 1976-77 in class IX. Plus two came into being in 1978-79. The 3-year degree courses have consequently been enriched from the year 1980-81. The special feature of Tamil Nadu is that it has introduced vocationalisation in +2 in a big way, more details of which are given later in this report.

27. The Central Board of Secondary Education introduced the new pattern in all its Schools, including those in the Union Territory of Delhi, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Arunachal Pradesh and Sikkim as also in all the Kendriya Vidyalayas, Sainik Schools, Military Schools and various independent private schools in 1975. Because of addition of one year in the higher secondary stage, the curriculum was enriched and upgraded. In 1977 it conducted its first secondary school examination with the new curriculum. It held its first 2-year higher secondary school examination (class XII) in the year 1979. The courses for plus two were diversified and the new syllabi were evolved in collaboration with the N.C.E.R.T. New textbooks were prepared for all the classes from IX to XII. New evaluation methods were also adopted including continuous internal assessment along with external examination. Keeping in view the needs of the students, it also introduced alternative syllabuses in each of the subjects of science, mathematics and languages. The Board organised a massive programme of teacher training in different parts of the country so as to orient them not only in the philosophy and concept of the new pattern but also in the new content of the curriculum and methods of teaching and evaluation.

28. As a result of the recommendations made by the two National Review Committees—Ishwarbhai Patel Committee for 10+2+3+ Curriculum

(1977) and Adishesiah Committee for 12-Year Curriculum (1978)—as also the feedback received from the schools, teachers and parents, necessary modifications were made by the CBSE in its syllabi and textbooks in 1978 and 1979 respectively.

29. The Board introduced vocationalisation in plus two from 1977 in about 20 schools. 700 students opted for about nine vocational courses. Vocationalisation, however, did not become popular in the schools of CBSE because the parents were apprehensive of adequate job opportunities for the students who passed + 2 with vocational courses. For a long time the Government did not take steps even to recognise the vocational courses for different jobs.

30. A statement showing the present position of different States and Union Territories with regard to the introduction of 10 + 2 + 3 is given below :

STATEWISE POSITION REGARDING 10 + 2 + 3

(as on 31-1-1984)

| States | Year of In- roduction in class VIII/IX | Whether curriculum modernised | Whether vocationa- lisation introduced in + 2 | Remarks |
|---------------------|--|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. Andra Pradesh | 1979-80 | Yes | Yes | + 3 is followed since 1971. Separate Board* |
| 2. Assam | 1974-75 | Yes | No | + 2 is both in schools and colleges |
| 3. Bihar | 1979-80 | Yes | No | |
| 4. Gujarat | 1976-77 | Yes | Yes | |
| 5. Haryana | — | Partly | No | 10 + 2 + 3 is still under consideration |
| 6. Himachal Pradesh | — | Partly | No | —do— |
| 7. Jammu & Kashmir | 1975-76 | Yes | No | 2-year degree course for pass. 3 years honours course proposed from 1984. |
| 8. Karnataka | 1969-70 | Yes | Yes | Separate Directorate for + 2 |
| 9. Kerala | 1964-65 | Yes | No | Pre-Degree with University |
| 10. Madhya Pradesh | — | No | No | It has still 11 + 3 |
| 11. Maharashtra | 1972-73 | Yes | Yes | Bombay University introduced 3-year |

* for Intermediate

| | | | | |
|-------------------|---------|-------------------|-----|---|
| | | | | degree course in 1977. +2 is both in schools and colleges |
| 12. Manipur | — | No | No | New curriculum prepared for class IX from 1984. |
| 13. Meghalaya | N.A. | Upto class X only | No | +2 is in Colleges |
| 14. Nagaland | 1980-81 | —do— | No | —do— |
| 15. Orissa | 1979-80 | Partly | No | +2 from 1983 |
| 16. Punjab | — | Partly | No | Decision to have 10+2 yet to be taken |
| 17. Rajasthan | — | Partly | No | —do— |
| 18. Sikkim | 1975-76 | Yes | No | |
| 19. Tamil Nadu | 1976-77 | Yes | Yes | +2 from 1978-79, +3 courses enriched from 1980-81 |
| 20. Tripura | 1973-74 | Yes | No | |
| 21. Uttar Pradesh | — | Partly | No | Now New syllabus for +2. State Universities have 2-year degree course. AMU has 10+1+3 |
| 22. West Bengal | 1973-74 | Yes | Yes | New 3 year degree courses from 1978-79. There is separate Council for +2 |

UNION TERRITORIES

| | | | | |
|---------------------------|---------|--------|-----|-----------------------------------|
| 1. A & N Islands | 1975-76 | Yes | Yes | |
| 2. Arunachal Pradesh | 1975-76 | Yes | No | 3-year degree course from 1982-83 |
| 3. Chandigarh | — | Partly | No | PUC is of one-year only |
| 4. Dadra and Nagar Haveli | 1976-77 | Yes | Yes | |
| 5. Delhi | 1975-76 | Yes | Yes | +2 from 1977-78 |
| 6. Goa, Daman & Diu | 1972-73 | Yes | Yes | |
| 7. Lakshadweep | 1964-65 | Yes | No | |
| 8. Mizoram | N.A. | Partly | No | +2 is in colleges |
| 9. Pondicherry | 1976-77 | Yes | Yes | |

FACTORS EFFECTING CHANGE

Curricular Changes

31. The 10+2+3 pattern was intended to enable the country to reorganise its educational system by discarding the outmoded curriculum, and replacing it by a new curriculum which was in tune with the present requirements of the society. It would not only help to modify the content of education by removing the dead wood and introducing the latest concepts, but also provide a means to change the methodology of teaching and evaluation. In fact, as has been emphasised again and again in all discussions on 10+2+3, it was not the structure but the means through which a much-desired change was proposed to be brought about, was of great significance. It was the raising of the quality of common man which was in forefront as the major objective of education than mere evolving a new pattern of education.

32. Under the old system, only patch-work could be done by adding one topic here and there in the curriculum. It was wellnigh impossible, as it were, to change the whole approach to education unless the system was changed and new strategies of education adopted. The curriculum under the new pattern is related to the environment of the child right from elementary stage and is intended not to alienate him from the society in which he lives. In the new curriculum, work is an integral part of education. The emphasis on mere bookish knowledge no longer exists. The child has an opportunity to be creative and productive. There is freedom for experimentation and project work.

33. "The curriculum for the Ten-Year School : A Framework" (1976) brought out by the N.C.E.R.T. suggested six academic subjects (three languages, mathematics, science and social science) and three allied areas (arts, work experience, health and physical education). The Ishwarbhai Patel Review Committee also suggested a total of 9 areas of school work, but they removed "arts" from the list of compulsory subjects, and replaced it by "an elective subject". It was recommended that the students should study one of the following : the arts (music, dancing, painting, etc); home science, agriculture, commerce, economics, social reconstruction, classical language, etc.

34. In actual practice, however, the position differs from State to State as indicated below :

- (1) A few States, both Hindi-speaking and non-Hindi speaking, have prescribed only two languages, namely, mother-tongue and English in their school curriculum instead of three languages under the three-language formula. Haryana and Tamil Nadu are two such instances.

- (2) There are variations in regard to the content and approach to science. Assam has recommended integrated approach for teaching of science, while Maharashtra recommends disciplinary approach. In the States of Gujarat, Tripura and Tamil Nadu both the approaches are followed. In Delhi, the approach to science syllabus organisation is basically integrated but there are three separate components of physics, chemistry and biology.
- (3) In Gujarat, Tripura, Delhi and Bihar, Social Science curriculum content includes areas of history, geography and civics. In Maharashtra, the curriculum content also includes Indian Administration in addition to the aforesaid three common areas. Likewise, Assam has two additions in the form of economics and sociology. Integrated approach in social science is followed in Assam, while disciplinary approach is followed in Gujarat and Maharashtra. In Tripura and Tamil Nadu, both the approaches are followed. In Delhi, the approach followed is basically integrated, but there are separate components of history, geography and civics in the syllabus.
- (4) In Gujarat arts is compulsory upto class IX, while in Tamil Nadu it is upto class X. In Maharashtra, Tripura, Delhi and Assam it is either optional or an elective subject.
- (5) Arts is an examination subject in Gujarat, Tripura and Assam, while in Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Delhi, it is a non-examination subject.
- (6) In Gujarat, Tripura, Assam and Himachal Pradesh, Socially Useful Productive Work (SUPW) is an examination area while in Tamil Nadu, Delhi and Maharashtra, no public examination is held in this subject at the end of class X. In Gujarat, students' performance in SUPW is assessed internally and marks are shown in certificates without being added to the aggregate marks. In Tripura, assessment of student performance is both internal and external. In Delhi, Assam and Maharashtra there is only internal assessment in SUPW. In Tripura marking system is followed, while in Assam grades are given to the students and finally converted into marks. In Tripura, marks obtained by students in SUPW are added to their aggregate marks.

35. However, existence of such variations in curricula should not be taken as obstacles in the way of achieving the objectives of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education. On the other hand, these variations are a sign of the initiative shown by the boards of secondary education and the universities to modify the curricula according to the local needs. However, while doing so the national objectives should not be lost sight of. The guidance provided

by the National council of Educational Research and Training in the form of a suggested syllabus has initiated the process of broad uniformity throughout the country. This should be further strengthened through conferences and meetings of the COBSE, Association of Indian Universities, CABE, and conference of Education Secretaries and DPIs.

Implementation of Educational Programmes

36. It was visualised that a broadly uniform pattern in all States and Union Territories will facilitate implementation of educational programmes, production of better and cheaper textbooks, reading materials and teaching aids, training of teachers and their movement, reconstruction of syllabi, and improvement in examination practices. Analysis of annual reports of the education departments of different States and State level organisations under them shows that the State Governments have shown a lot of interest in undertaking various educational programmes for improving the quality of education.

Preparation of New Textbooks and Instructional Materials

- (1) In Assam all textbooks at the school stage have been prepared afresh. The production of textbooks is done by the Text Books Production and Publication Corporation and the books are under constant review. They are provided cheap to the readers on a no-loss no-profit basis.
- (2) The Board of Secondary Education, Manipur has taken all preparatory steps for production of textbooks in accordance with the guidelines of the N.C.E.R.T.
- (3) The Gujarat State Board of Higher Secondary Education has published 138 monographs for reference material in different subjects.
- (4) The Maharashtra Board of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education has prepared 311 textbooks for classes VIII to XII. This number includes all language and non-language textbooks for classes VIII to X and only language textbooks for classes XI and XII. The Board has also set up a machinery for approving non-language textbooks for classes XI and XII. It has accorded sanction to 397 textbooks for these classes.
- (5) In addition to the textbooks, the Maharashtra Board of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education has also prepared teachers' handbooks and students' work books in the subjects of English, Algebra, Geometry, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, History, Civics and Geography. This work was done with the cooperation of Secondary School Headmasters Associations and Subject Teachers Associations.

Examination Reforms

- (1) A large number of examination reforms have been implemented by the Boards of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education after the introduction of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern. Some of these reforms are briefly listed below :
- In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Kerala, Maharashtra and Orissa only those who are trained in evaluation are considered eligible for appointment as paper setters.
 - Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Kerala and Maharashtra develop a policy statement (design) for each question paper
 - In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Kerala, Gujarat and Maharashtra a panel of paper setters for each question paper is appointed by the Boards.
 - In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Kerala, Gujarat and Maharashtra a definite proportion/percentage of marks is allocated in a question paper for testing different abilities.
 - In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Kerala and Maharashtra an effective coverage of the syllabus through question paper is ensured.
 - Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala and Maharashtra have introduced a system of specific pin-pointed questions in the question papers.
 - In Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur and Orissa short-answer questions are included in the question papers besides the essay type ones.
 - In Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Manipur, Orissa and Tamil Nadu objective type (multiple choice) questions have been introduced in the question papers.
 - Bihar, Gujarat and Goa have introduced use of question banks for setting question papers.
 - Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala and Orissa have abolished overall options in the question papers.
 - Assam, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra and Delhi have developed a system of marking scheme along with each question paper.
 - Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu have introduced a system of division of questions for fixed response questions and free response questions with fixed separate time limits.

- Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Delhi and Tamil Nadu have introduced centralised or spot-evaluation of scripts.
- Andhra Pradesh, Delhi, Gujarat, Kerala, Karnataka and Maharashtra have introduced mechanical processing of examination results.
- Andhra Pradesh, Delhi and Maharashtra have adopted the system of giving grades instead of marks in respect of certain subjects.
- Gujarat and Kerala have developed a system of scaling of subject-wise results for making them comparable.
- In Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala and Maharashtra the students are allowed to clear by parts.
- In Andhra Pradesh, Delhi, Karnataka, and Kerala the students are permitted to improve their grades by appearing at subsequent examination.
- In Tamil Nadu both academic and non-academic areas of pupil growth are incorporated in the scheme of internal assessment.

This shows that the introduction of the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education has also given some impetus to the process of introduction of examination reforms at the school stage. Although Rajasthan has not yet adopted 10 + 2, the Board of Secondary Education, Rajasthan has introduced a number of reforms in its secondary and higher secondary examinations and, therefore, can be treated as an exception in this regard.

Orientation of Teachers

- (1) The National Council of Educational Research and Training organised, on a very large scale, orientation programmes for + 2 teachers in Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and Commerce in States and Union Territories, which have adopted the new pattern to enable them to teach the new syllabus effectively.
- (2) In Assam, teachers have been trained in the objective-based teaching and testing, from recognised High/Higher Secondary Schools, in each of the subjects English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. At least one teacher from each school was thus trained. It may be noted that in Assam, there are approximately 2,000 recognised Secondary schools. The responsibility of training of teachers has been shouldered jointly by the Assam Board of Secondary Education, Colleges of Education of Assam and Regional College of Education, Bhubaneswar.

- (3) The State Institute of Education, Maharashtra, with the help of the colleges of education and the district education offices organised a large number of orientation programmes, workshops and seminars for teachers in new evaluation techniques in subjects like science, mathematics and geography, consequent upon introduction of 10 + 2 in the State.
- (4) The Bihar Examination Board has organised workshops in collaboration with the National Council of Educational Research and Training. The objectives of the workshops were to acquaint the teachers with the techniques of paper setting, unit tests and framework of teaching units.
- (5) The Goa, Daman & Diu Board of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education conducted a series of content-oriented courses for the teachers of Goa during the period 1972-75.

MOBILE POPULATION AND NATIONAL INTEGRATION

37. A uniform pattern, it was hoped, will help remove difficulties in the matter of education of children of the mobile population, which is continuously increasing in our country and promote national integration. The problem of the mobile population in respect of education of their children has been only partly solved. It is because there are a few States and Union Territories which have not yet shifted to the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern. Moreover, certain States have still provincial restrictions and do not allow free migration of students from other States, putting them to a lot of hardships. As a result of this the mobile population has to suffer from the problems with regard to education of their children, when they migrate to a place where the pattern of education is different. This problem is faced, even by those students who study in schools which are located in the same State as other schools but are affiliated to the Central Board of Secondary Education instead of the State Board of Secondary Education. The problem of admission of CBSE students in professional colleges in the State of Punjab and in the Union Territory of Chandigarh is the widely discussed one. The University of Punjab equated class XII of the schools affiliated to the Central Board of Secondary Education and Council of Indian School Certificate Examination to class XI of schools affiliated to the Punjab Board of Secondary Education. As a result of this decision the CBSE students have to waste one year unnecessarily.

38. Another problem faced by the migrating population is change of medium of instruction, and language policies of the State Governments. This problem may be solved by persuading the States which have not shifted to the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education, to adopt this pattern and follow a liberal policy in the matter of study of languages and the medium of instruction. What happened recently in Karnataka as a consequence of the Gokak Committee report is well known. Too much emphasis on the local

language by a State puts students from other regions to a severe disadvantage and hampers national integration. The three language formula, if faithfully implemented by all the States may ease the situation but that would not be enough so long as the States follow the policy of narrow provincialism. The Government of India may enact, if necessary, suitable law to prevent such an attitude on the part of the States, as the education is now on the Concurrent List. Another alternative would be to open more Kendriya Vidyalayas or schools affiliated to then Central Board of Secondary Education, funded by the State Governments.

Pressure for Admission on Universities

39. It was thought that the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education will reduce pressure for admissions on universities and other centres of higher education. The educationists and others who were asked to give their opinion on this matter unanimously hold the view that this objective has not been achieved at all. Most of them attribute this failure to the failure of either introducing appropriate vocational courses at + 2 stage or effective implementation of the programme of vocationalisation of education. Among other reasons given by them are :

- (i) Lack of proper opportunities for gainful employment after class X and class XII.
- (ii) High status given to university degrees.
- (iii) Failure of 10 + 2 to become a terminal stage; it is still considered a preparatory stage for university degrees.

40. Contrary to the views of the educationists, the statistics, however, show that enrolment in universities was considerably reduced in the initial years after introduction of the new pattern in these States. The new pattern, therefore, helped to check the rush to universities in India, to some extent, as was the objective. The universities having been relieved of the pressures of numbers began to concentrate on quality and on faculty improvement programmes. The trend has, however, not continued. It is felt that by making class X a terminal stage, a sizable proportion of pupils should enter the world of work at that point. Class XII examination can act as another terminal point whereafter the students who wish to take up further studies, join colleges. The "plus two" has to offer diversified courses so that students can opt for vocational courses.

VOCATIONALISATION OF PLUS TWO

41. The Education Commission (1966) had envisaged that of the total enrolment in higher secondary schools in the country at the + 2 stage, 50 per cent would be offering vocational courses. Vocationalisation was accepted in principle by all the 22 States and 9 Union Territories in 1976 as an important element of the new educational pattern 10 + 2. But so far,

only 6 States and 5 Union Territories have implemented the programme. They are : Gujarat, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Goa, Daman & Diu and Pondicherry.

42. The Government of Jammu & Kashmir proposes to conduct vocational surveys to identify the vocational subjects to be introduced at + 2 stage. The Government of Orissa is planning to introduce vocational courses from the academic session 1984-85.

Vocational Surveys

43. It was expected that before the selection of vocational courses and the schools in which they were to be introduced, a quick occupational survey would be conducted to determine the relevance of the courses, employment potential and the capability of schools to conduct them efficiently. Out of 6 States and 5 Union Territories which have introduced vocationalisation of education, Gujarat and Karnataka have conducted surveys in almost all the districts. In Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu surveys have been conducted in some of the districts. In Andhra Pradesh some of the districts are being surveyed. It may be pointed out that in all the 6 States, vocational courses have been introduced before conducting vocational surveys.

44. The position regarding vocational surveys conducted in different States/Union Territories is as follows :

POSITION OF VOCATIONAL SURVEYS IN THE STATES/U.T.s

| Name of the State/ Union Territory | No. of Districts for which Grant-in-aid was released | No. of Districts for which surveys have been conducted | No. of Districts for which survey reports have been submitted to the Ministry of Education |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Assam | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Gujarat | 7 | 20 | 20 |
| Haryana | 10 | 12 | .. |
| J & K | 2 | .. | .. |
| Karnataka | 19 | 18 | 18 |
| M.P. | 45 | .. | .. |
| Maharashtra | 9 | 9 | 1 |
| Manipur | 2 | .. | .. |
| Nagaland | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Orissa | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Punjab | 4 | 4 | .. |
| Rajasthan | 4 | 4 | .. |
| Sikkim | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Tamil Nadu | 15 | 6 | .. |
| Tripura | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| A.P. | | 3 | .. |

45. With a few exception majority of survey reports are found lacking in empirical support for selection of courses and institutions. There are a number of reports which lack in basic components, i.e. they do not even specify the potential vocations, manpower required, number and names of institutions which should offer them, etc. According to NCERT, different criteria have been adopted by different States for selection of the vocation. The need for a vocation through commonsense and discussions among knowledgeable people were the main criteria besides several other subjective considerations. The facilities available in the institution concerned has been one of the major considerations while starting a vocational course rather than the need of the area for the same.

Vocational Curricula and Instructional Material

46. The vocational courses being new in their nature, supply of instructional material is generally a serious problem. However, two States, viz., Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu, have prepared textbooks and teachers' guides in a number of vocational subjects. In Gujarat the State Board of Secondary Education has conducted a number of workshops to prepare instructional material, and oriented the teachers to teach in the absence of instructional materials.

Arrangement of Teachers

47. Arrangements of teachers on permanent or part-time basis for vocational courses is another crucial aspect. The National Document on "Higher Secondary Education on Its Vocationalisation" published by the NCERT in 1976 recommended that the appointment of teachers in vocational subjects need not be made on the basis of traditional recruitment rules and that the essential qualification for teachers for the purpose should be the requisite professional background rather than a university degree.

48. In Tamil Nadu the heads of the institutions where vocationalisation at +2 stage has been introduced are free to appoint part time teachers having relevant practical experience. Many retired persons with appropriate skills have also been appointed on short-term basis. This has been done keeping in view the changing nature of the courses. However, there is a demand to appoint teachers on a regular basis. Similarly, in the case of part time instructors, there is a complaint that remuneration is too meagre. The Government of Tamil Nadu has introduced an innovative experiment—"Student Vocational Monitors" on "Earn While You Learn" principle on a monthly remuneration of Rs.20/-. Two vocational monitors are permitted for each course—one for the first year and the other for the second year.

49. In Karnataka the vocational courses are run mostly by utilising the services of the existing teaching staff of the regular colleges on a part-time basis. If the persons with required qualifications are not available within

the institution, the services of such persons from other departments are utilised. At present, there is no job security to the employees working in this stream. However, the authorities in the State feel that it may become difficult to absorb the existing staff in case there is any change in the courses. The Government is actively considering the problem of providing job security.

50. In Maharashtra, in almost all the institutions, persons with post-graduate qualifications in respective streams are appointed as instructors. Practitioners in the concerned areas, e.g. engineers, medical practitioners, chartered accountants, etc., are also appointed as part-time instructors. However, here also there is a complaint about remuneration in the case of parttime instructors that it is very meagre.

Recognition for Employment

51. One of the most important factors which can help in making the programme of vocationalisation a success is the recognition of vocational courses by employing agencies for middle-level employment. It is reported that schools in Tamil Nadu have been successful in establishing linkages with the industries, factories, banks, farms, hospitals, etc. All leading industrialists and chambers of commerce have been consulted in the matter of linking vocational education with industries and commerce and a fair degree of success has been achieved in forging linkages.

A sample survey done in North Arcot revenue district of Tamil Nadu revealed that 47 per cent of the successful students at the higher secondary examination have continued their studies and 49 per cent of them are gainfully employed/self-employed.

52. In Andhra Pradesh, the Government is actively considering to amend the service rules of Government departments and public undertakings to make the students of vocational courses eligible for recruitment for different posts of middle-level technicians identified by the committees appointed for this purpose. No survey regarding such recruitment has, however, been conducted.

53. In Karnataka, the State Government constituted a High Level Committee in 1979 consisting of several heads of departments. The members were of the opinion that the courses have been found useful to certain categories of posts in their respective departments, and agreed to propose amendments to the recruitment rules of their departments to accommodate the students coming out of the vocational examination. The Karnataka Electricity Board have offered the posts of Overseers, Assistant Store-Keepers, Junior Assistants in their organisations to successful students in vocational courses. Similarly, the Department of Cooperation has recognised the course of "Cooperation" for appointment of these students

as Secretaries in Primary Agricultural Credit Cooperative Societies. Some industrial establishments have also appointed these students in their establishments, keeping in view the qualifications. Certain courses have been recognised by the Banking Commission also for appointment of clerical staff in the nationalised banks. Sericulture Department is appointing diploma-holders of Sericulture as Sericulture Demonstrators in that Department. No statistics in the matter are available. However, as per observations of the officers of Karnataka, 40 per cent students go for self-employment.

54. No such conscious efforts have been reported to be made by the State Governments in Gujarat, Maharashtra and West Bengal. Similarly, statistics regarding employment or self-employment after +2 stage in the vocational stream are not available.

Progress of Vocationalisation

55. To ensure country-wide acceptance of the concept of vocationalisation and to assist the State Governments in establishing the relevance and importance of this concept to our socio-economic needs, a centrally-sponsored scheme for vocationalisation of higher secondary education was launched in February 1977. Central assistance was provided for (i) conduct of district vocational surveys, (ii) appointment of district vocational officer, (iii) purchase of equipment for vocational courses, and (iv) salary for teachers of vocational courses. Under this scheme, financial assistance was released for vocational surveys in 131 selected districts of Assam, Gujarat, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu and Tripura. Financial assistance was also given for the introduction of vocational courses in 9 districts of Karnataka, 8 districts of Maharashtra and 1 district of Sikkim. Sikkim, however, could not start the course due to lack of response from students. To strengthen the efforts of Government of West Bengal in this direction, financial assistance was given for the purchase of equipment. But even before the programme could take roots, the scheme was discontinued from April 1979, in pursuance of a general decision of the National Development Council to transfer. The centrally-sponsored scheme to the State sector. Efforts made at reviving this scheme under the Sixty Five-Year Plan did not bear fruit as the Planning Commission did not agree to it.

56. Progress of vocationalisation in different States and Union Territories is given on the next page.

57. The current intake of vocational students is of the order of about 50,000 in over 1500 institutions in 6 States and 5 Union Territories. While all other States and Union Territories which have introduced vocational courses have done it on a limited scale, in Tamil Nadu, vocationalisation

of higher secondary education has been attempted on a somewhat big scale. The following table will show the progress made in this behalf in Tamil Nadu :

Progress of Vocationalisation in Different State/U.T.s

(1977-1981)

| States/UT | No. of Institutions | | No. of students | |
|----------------|---------------------|------|-----------------|--------|
| | 1977 | 1981 | 1977 | 1981 |
| Delhi | 22 | 22 | 700 | 700 |
| West Bengal | 70 | 50 | 2500 | 1200 |
| Andhra Pradesh | 20 (1979) | 80 | 500 (1979) | 1200 |
| Karnataka | 13 | 95 | 1000 | 2900 |
| Maharashtra | 30 (1978) | 210 | 2000 (1978) | 9000 |
| Tamil Nadu | 700 (1978) | 950 | 20000 (1978) | 25000* |

* The number has gone up to 30,461 in 1983.

Vocationalisation of Higher Secondary Education in Tamil Nadu

| | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Total No. of candidates for +2 Exam. (both General and Vocational) | 1,18,084 | 1,23,757 | 1,30,389 | 1,42,729 |
| Vocational students for +2 Exam. | | | | |
| Agriculture | 2,910 | 1,979 | 2,476 | 2,237 |
| Home Science | 1,543 | 1,616 | 1,398 | 1,463 |
| Commerce and Business Management | 11,574 | 12,914 | 14,777 | 16,037 |
| Engineering and Technology | 6,877 | 6,201 | 7,287 | 8,437 |
| Health | 1,580 | 2,610 | 2,078 | 2,242 |
| Misc. (Photography, Tourism, Dancing) | 60. | 55 | 48 | 45 |
| Total | 24,544 | 25,375 | 28,064 | 30,461 |

58. The progress of vocationalisation of higher secondary education in the country was reviewed in the Education Ministers' Conference held on June 2, 1981. The Conference made the following recommendations :

"Only a few of the States and Union Territories have introduced vocational courses at the +2 stage. Adoption of new pattern, in the absence of vocationalisation of education at the +2 stage, will not be effective in bringing about the desired reform in education. All the

States/Union Territories should, therefore, speedily introduce vocational courses at the + 2 stage. A time-bound programme should be evolved for conduct of surveys, preparation of curricula, institution of courses, opening of institutions, etc. so as to maximise results in the minimum possible time”.

59. Recently in January 1984, in the Working Group on Secondary Education appointed by the Ministry of Education and Culture for preparation of the Seventh Plan, the matter has been reviewed further. It is felt that vocationalisation of education at + 2 stage is perhaps the most important element in the 10 + 2 pattern. It is feared that in the absence of diversification, by which a considerable segment of student population could be channelised into meaningful productive programmes, the country may be left with no alternative but to continue with the more expensive and generally unproductive higher education.

Divergent Views

60. Two extremely divergent views are, however, being expressed on the way the programme of vocationalisation can be implemented. One view is that of caution, suggesting that the programme should be first implemented on a pilot or selective basis in a few vocational schools which should be duly equipped for the same. Once the effectiveness of the programme is demonstrated in about 125 such schools, the programme should then be extended to the remaining schools in a phased manner.

61. The other view is that unless vocationalisation is introduced on a mass scale in higher secondary schools along with general education, as has been done in Tamil Nadu, it will not make any impact and the scheme of vocationalisation will continue to limp in the way it has so far done since its introduction in the country in 1977.

62. Perhaps a flexible and more open policy, rather than prescribing a rigid pattern of vocationalisation is called for. For a country of the size of India, what is important is to adopt both approaches as it may suit in keeping with the situations that exist in a particular place or region. Tamil Nadu has demonstrated that introduction of vocational stream on a large scale can be successful in diverting a substantial portion of the students to meaningful courses. It is reported that vocational courses have become successful in the State and the popularity of these courses is evidenced by the fact that out of 1,18,084 students admitted in + 2 in 1980, i.e. in the year of introduction of vocationalisation, 24,544 joined the vocational stream in 709 schools, which worked out to nearly 25 per cent of the total strength at the higher secondary stage. The number has steadily increased since then. Now there are vocational courses in 940 schools out of 1360. The total number of vocational courses started is 1432. It is also stated that though

Government input in introducing the scheme has been considerably high, it gave priority to the scheme and provided all assistance.

Terminality of Vocational Stream

63. Another important issue where opinions have been sharply divided is the question of terminal character of the vocational stream. One view, which is rather strong, is that all vocational courses must be terminal in nature as they are expected to prepare students for jobs. On completion of the course, a student must be able to find a job or enter the world of work through self-employment as the course must have provided him adequate skill for the same. The holders of that view state that vocational students should not be allowed entry into general degree courses as that would defeat the very purpose of vocationalisation. Yet, another view, which is equally strong, is that vocationalisation should not be a blind alley and that there should be opportunities for further education in colleges after completion of +2, as is normally allowed to other students who have offered general education courses. This was also the view of the National Review Committee (1978) on Higher Secondary Education and its Vocationalisation of which the author of this study was Member-Secretary. It had observed that :

"The vocational courses should not be a dead end in themselves. For those who wish to continue and improve their qualifications, there should be a provision for allowing them admission to the 2nd year of the Agricultural Universities or the 3rd year of the Polytechnics or of nursing colleges and other such institutions where admission requirement is a ten-year school pass. For admission to the related professional courses, it would encourage vocationalisation if at least there is a provision to enable the vocational class XII leavers to seek admission to the professional courses after the person has acquired actual job experience of three years or more. This is the practice already followed in some institutions of higher learning. The curriculum and the structure of courses of the professional institutions—specially for the first year of the course—will have to be reformulated in such a way that there is a provision for special coaching of the students who come from the job experience, to make up the deficiency, if any. The universities should not close the doors to those students who wish to pursue further studies. The universities may prepare package pre-requisite courses to make up the deficiencies of students who have pursued vocational courses and wish to pursue higher courses of study. In class XI also students who have completed their studies in vocational or Junior Technical Schools and ITIs should be accepted for admission. Package pre-requisite courses should be drawn up to counter the deficiencies of such students entering classes XI and XII.

64. Dr. V.C. Kulandaiswamy, Vice-Chancellor of Anna University, Madras holds a Similar view when he says that a vocational stream student is not meant to be prepared like an ITI trainee or a polytechnic student. If that were the objective, the ITIs and Polytechnics can as well be increased in number. The vocationalised stream is the second path in higher secondary education and the vocational bias of a school does not commit its students to a job but serves to familiarise them with practical work, gives a professional qualification to those not proceeding to higher levels, provides a second string for such of the students who may not get into colleges and forms a basis For practical experience to those who are interested in work.

65. For a majority of students, the vocational courses are generally intended to be terminal in the sense that one can enter the job at the end of the course. However, this does not mean that all doors should be closed for any further improvement of one's qualifications.

66. In Tamil Nadu, the vocationalisation of education at + 2 stage is so structured as to make it both terminal and continuing. The system permits the students to secure further qualifications for vertical and horizontal mobility whenever they desire and opportunities occur. For those who wish to continue and improve their qualifications, there is a provision for allowing them admission in technical and professional institutions in specialised areas, as follows :

- Engineering Colleges.
- Second-year of Polytechnics (10% seats are reserved for them)
- Agriculture and Veterinary courses.
- M.B.B.S. and B.D.S. courses.
- Vocational students of "Nursing" subject in B.Sc. (Nursing) in the second year of the course.

67. Similarly, universities of Tamil Nadu do not close the doors to those who wish to pursue studies, by offering them an opportunity to appear in an additional subject.

68. In Andhra Pradesh, students passing out from the vocational stream are held eligible for admission to respective professional courses at the degree level with no reservation or weightage. However, in respect of candidates passing courses in engineering and technology, they are given 10% additional weightage for admission to polytechnic courses. Further, all successful students of vocational courses are eligible for admission to respective undergraduate courses in Arts and Science.

69. In Maharashtra, the system is bifocal and also liberal in providing vertical mobility for vocational students on terms identical to those with

academic students. 5% additional weightage of marks is accorded to these students, while they compete with their academic stream counterparts for polytechnic admissions.

70. In Karnataka, those courses are mainly terminal in nature. The universities have some Reservation and hesitation in the matter of providing vertical mobility to the students of the vocational stream on the general education side at the degree level advancing the reason of terminal stage. The education authorities in the State are, however, of the opinion that no student will be ready to risk his future by joining the vocational stream if these courses are made terminal. The State Government has approached the universities to consider granting admissions to these students in general courses.

71. In the context of large-scale unemployment in our country and the general apprehension in the minds of parents that vocational courses are second-rate courses and are meant for inferior students, it seems advisable that at least for some time to come, as a transitional measure, the doors to upward mobility of students who have offered vocational courses in plus two should not be closed, although every attempt should be made to ensure that vocational courses lead the students to jobs or self-employment. This would, of course, call for expansion of apprentice programmes and designing of vocational courses in collaboration with the industry and other employing agencies. The organised sector, in particular the governmental and public sector, should revise its recruitment rules suitably so as to prefer plus two vocational students for various jobs with them.

Linkages

72. If vocationalisation has to succeed, it is also necessary that apart from building strong linkages with the industry, agriculture and other agencies, emphasis should also be given to training in entrepreneurship and familiarising the students with the processes of mobilisation of resources, storing and marketing of goods, etc. Strong contacts with the Department of Small-Scale Industry and Banks, etc. would also have to be established.

73. In view of the high initial cost of machinery and equipment needed for vocationalisation of education at +2 stage, no State Government can afford to make the kind of investment needed for each school selected for introducing vocational courses. It is also not possible to simulate the factory or farm conditions in schools for providing skills in various vocations. It, therefore, becomes imperative to minimise investment in machinery and equipment and to ensure that training is given to students in skills under realistic conditions by the practitioners. This can be made possible by establishing effective linkages between the schools and the production units.

The National Review Committee on Vocationalisation of Higher Secondary Education (1978) also stressed this point. Attempts are being made in the States where vocationalisation have been introduced to establish such linkages. But the success in this direction is very limited barring a few exceptions. It is said that Tamil Nadu and Karnataka have been successful in establishing such linkages, while other States have not been so successful.

Funding

74. Further, it is also felt that a centrally-sponsored scheme should be formulated on a 50:50 basis for meeting expenses on vocational courses in the Seventh Plan so that the thrust of the scheme is evident and due enthusiasm is generated in the States for launching of the same on a wider and effective basis. Such financial assistance may be made available at least for one school in each district in a year.

STATES WHICH DID NOT ADOPT 10+2+3

75. Before discussing the difficulties faced by the States and Union Territories which have introduced the 10+2+3 pattern, it would be worthwhile to look at the problems faced by some of those who have not yet introduced the new pattern. Out of the 7 States and one Union Territory which fall under this category, enquiries were made from a few States, viz. Punjab, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh.

(a) Punjab

76. The Director, Evaluation and Academic Planning, Punjab School Education Board, states that the Government of Punjab could not introduce the pattern due to the following difficulties :

- (i) Lack of will on the part of the State Government.
- (ii) Lack of finances.
- (iii) Location of +2 poses a serious problem.

77. In the State, there is a general feeling that +2 is of no use. If the standard can be raised by concentrating more on 10-year schooling, what is the necessity of investing funds for a mere change in name?

78. The Deputy Director (Vocationalisation) writes that the Government of Punjab has not been able to introduce the new pattern because of the difficulties in introducing vocationalisation at +2 stage. On the basis of vocationalised courses introduced in the State in classes IX, X and XI, he finds that the students cannot develop skills necessary for apprenticeship or self-employment. In the time-table only five periods a week are devoted to the trade. It may be said that at the secondary stage, it is work experience and not vocationalisation which has been introduced in the State of Punjab.

(b) Haryana

79. The Director of School Education, Haryana informs that the State Government has formulated a comprehensive scheme for the introduction of the new pattern of education. The State Government has taken the following steps in this direction :

- (i) Teaching of Science and Mathematics has been made compulsory.
- (ii) Socially Useful Productive Work has been made an integral part of the school curriculum.
- (iii) Science laboratories/Libraries in schools have been strengthened by providing necessary science equipment and books.
- (iv) Vocational Survey of all the 12 districts of the State has been undertaken in order to identify the vocations and the areas in which particular vocations could be introduced in schools.
- (v) Science teachers of high school classes have been given intensive training in teaching physical and life sciences so that they could take up the job in right earnest as soon as the switch over to the new pattern takes place. Thus the Directorate of School Education is fully prepared to implement this pattern and is awaiting approval of the Government.

(c) Madhya Pradesh

80. The Board of Secondary Education, Madhya Pradesh has prepared a draft syllabus for the new high school examination of class X. The Board has also prepared curriculum guidelines for science and social science subjects.

(d) Alibi of Universities of these States

81. The Registrars of Universities and Directors of College Development Councils in these States, who have responded in this study, have no information about the decision of the State Government for the adoption of 10+2. Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan universities say that they could not initiate any action at the +3 Stage for upgrading of their courses as the State Government did not take any decision to introduce the pattern in secondary and higher secondary schools. Some of the respondents even showed unawareness about the linkage of 10+2 with the +3 stage and thought that the matter was concerned only with the school system.

82. The Vice-Chancellor of Punjab University has observed that at present the 10+1+3 pattern is followed by its affiliated colleges. +1 is in the university as PUC. If +2 course is introduced in colleges, their resources will have to be increased manifold. If +1 is shifted to schools the enrolment in the colleges will fall down and some staff may have to

be shifted to the schools. The curriculum needs proper planning, if introduction is to extend for 3 years after + 2 stage. Some efforts in this direction have been made by the university. But still the curriculum in arts, commerce and science courses is in a nebulous state. According to him, there is initial hesitation and adverse reaction amongst the principals and teachers regarding 10 + 2 + 3 pattern. However, the university is positively inclined to introduce this pattern.

83. The Punjab University has about 100 colleges affiliated to it. The number of Government colleges in Punjab is very small as compared to the private colleges. 95 per cent of the deficit in all colleges is met by the Punjab Government and, therefore, change-over without the financial support of the Punjab Government is not possible. A decision about 10 + 2 + 3 in Punjab, has, therefore, to be taken by the Punjab Government, according to the Vice-Chancellor.

(e) Uttar Pradesh

84. In Uttar Pradesh, the State universities are not having a three-year degree course. According to the Vice-Chancellor of Kanpur University, introduction of 3-year degree course involves additional buildings and additional teaching and supporting staff for the teaching departments of 3 State universities and 382 colleges. The expenditure involved would be considerable.

85. The State Government had appointed a Committee to consider the question of the introduction of 3-year degree course for the U.P. State universities and colleges. The Committee recommended that the 3-year degree course might be introduced as an honours course in 3 universities and about 30 selected colleges in the State.

86. The Kanpur University appointed an *ad hoc* Committee which has prepared the outline of the structure of the courses for B.A., B.Sc., and B.Com. The outline envisages a 3-year degree course having four components, viz. languages, foundation courses, core courses and applied courses. The Government, however, is yet to take a decision for introduction of a 3-year degree course in U.P.

Problem of additional year

87. Thus it is evident that at the secondary and higher secondary stage, it is mainly the lack of will on the part of respective Governments which has come in the way of introducing the new pattern. In all these States which have not implemented the new pattern, the common feature is that at present the pattern of education is 11 + 3 or 10 + 1 + 3 (14 years). If the new pattern is introduced, it will mean an addition of one year. It is mainly

due to this reason that the State Government have not shown willingness to introduce 10 + 2 + 3 (15 years) so far; they do not want to lose popularity among the public by adding one year.

88. However, with regard to the lengthening of the duration of the course from the usual fourteen to fifteen years, it must be clarified that it has been long overdue. It is not only in India that fifteen years of education are required for the first degree. In fact, most countries of the world spend sixteen years for the first degree. The educational structure in the United Kingdom is six years of primary, five years of secondary, and two years of the sixth form followed by three years in a University leading to the first degree. In the U.S.A. twelve years of school education are to precede two years of junior college or four years of bachelor degree colleges. France requires fifteen years of education before awarding the first degree. In FRG and GDR, ten-year schooling forms the base for branching out into further education. Admission to the University is made only after twelve-year secondary school. In Japan, there are six years of primary, three years of lower secondary, covering nine years of compulsory education. The upper secondary stage covers upto class XII which is followed by two-year or three-year junior colleges or four-year universities. Afganistan, Iraq, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Iran and Thailand all have sixteen years for the first degree. Combodia takes seventeen years. How could India continue with only fourteen years? It is common knowledge that a graduate of India is asked to seek admission to an undergraduate course in the West if he wishes to pursue further studies there.

UNIFORM IMPLEMENTATION OF 10+2+3

89. J.P. Naik in his book "Education Commission and After (1982)" has stated that the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of school and college classes was one of those recommendations of the Education Commission that attracted wide attention. Because of public demand the implementation of this recommendation started very soon in spite of the fact that the Centre had refused to provide any financial assistance for the purpose. The first moves were made by the States which had 15-year pattern and which did not have to increase the total duration for the first degree course. Andhra Pradesh was one such State to come forward for implementation because it had two different patterns inherited as a result of reorganisation of the States (one from the old Andhra and the other from the old Hyderabad State). The same reason led to initiative being taken in Karnataka and Maharashtra. Of course, personal factors such as interest shown by individual Education Ministers were also responsible. By 1972 the revision was definitely under way in the States having 15-year pattern, although its pace was rather slow. The 14-year States, however, remained indifferent if not hostile, and took no initiative.

90. It was at this stage that Prof. S. Nurul Hasan, the then Union Education Minister, decided that some positive action by the Centre was called for. He wanted to press the programme on three main grounds :

- it would reduce the Expansion of higher education;
- it would help in improving the standards; and
- it would also reduce the overall recurring costs of education in the long run (i.e. + 2 as part of the school would always cost less than as a part of university education).

The strategy he adopted was three-fold :

- (i) To implement the introduction of the 10 + 2 pattern in Delhi and all other UTs and also in organisations like the Central Schools so that the bonafides of the Central Government are established;
- (ii) To pursue the matter rigorously with 15-year States where the problem was comparatively easy; and
- (iii) To press the 14-year States into some action.

91. According to Naik, Prof. Hasan succeeded in the first two of his objectives and brought the programme almost to a point of no return.

92. When the Janata Government came into power in 1977 a debate over this issue started again. In the new draft of National Policy on Education which it prepared in 1978, a proposal was made that the pattern of education in future should be 8 + 4 + 2/3, i.e. 8 years of primary and middle school, 4 years of secondary school, followed by 2 years of pass course or 3 years of honours course for the first degree. The recommendation was also made by the Shriman Narain National Conference on Education which was held at that time. However, in the Education Minister's Conference held subsequently during the Janata regime, it was resolved, after a long discussion, to continue with the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern and it was also recommended that the States which have not switched over to the 10 + 2 + 3 should do so as early as possible. The Draft National Policy on Education, remained an abortive attempt.

93. The indecision of the Janata Government for some time regarding the continuance of 10 + 2 + 3, gave it a considerable set-back. Despite the fact that the Education Minister's Conference did pass a resolution in favour of continuing 10 + 2 + 3, most of the 14-year States did not take any steps to change over to the -5-year pattern although all of them always said that they agree with it in principle.

94. The Central Advisory Board of Education in its recent meeting held on 6th June, 1983 considered this matter once again and resolved as follows :

- The Board notes with satisfaction that the States, which had not done it earlier, have decided to adopt the 10 + 2 system of school education. It, however, notes with concern that only a few States and Union Territories have introduced vocational courses at the + 2 stage of education. In the opinion of the Board, the adoption of 10 + 2 system of education without vocationalisation of the + 2 stage will not be effective in bringing about the desired transformation of education.
- The Board urges upon the States/Union Territories to evolve a time-bound programme of introducing vocational courses at the + 2 stage for which steps need to be taken to conduct surveys, prepare curricula, textual materials, institute courses, develop a suitable system of practice training and of evaluation.

The 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of educational structure, it is significant to note, was not envisaged as a mere arithmetical exercise. It was a means to overhaul the curricula at all stages of education and make them modern and relevant to the needs and aspirations of the people. Unfortunately, in many of the States which have adopted the 10 + 2 pattern, the curricula have remained traditional. Uttar Pradesh, for instance, is one such example where some of the important elements of the NCERT's 10-Year curriculum have still not been adopted. Science and mathematics are not yet an integral part of the school curriculum in U.P. Work Experience and Socially Useful Productive Work is also not an essential component of the curriculum. According to a recent report of the University Grants Commission Enquiry Committee which went into the working of the Central Universities (1984), the Aligarh Muslim University is the only Central University which has not changed over to the nationally accepted 10 + 2 system of education so far. The State universities of Uttar Pradesh do not still have 3-year degree course and, therefore, the pattern in U.P. virtually is either 10 + 1 + 3 (14 years) or 10 + 2 + 2 (14 years). The UGC has now appointed another Committee to enable the AMU to adopt 10 + 2.

PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES

95. The 10 + 2 + 3 pattern of education was intended to provide an opportunity and means to modernise and strengthen school and college curricula and to restructure them on scientific lines. By and large, the educationists who have expressed their opinion on the subject seem to agree that this objective has been only partly achieved. Some of the reasons for not achieving this objective to the fullest extent are:

- (1) All States and Union Territories have not yet adopted the new pattern on a uniform basis.
- (2) Training colleges have not updated their curricula and methodology. They are not keeping pace with the new educa-

tional technology. As a result, the teachers coming out of training colleges are not acquainted with the philosophy of the new pattern.

- (3) Universities have not shown the same amount of enthusiasm in modifying their curricula.
- (4) A few educationists doubt whether curricula in different States have been prepared on scientific lines, because atmosphere in the States is highly politicised. Non-acceptance of the three-language formula by a few States is a glaring example of this. The curricula in colleges should be directly responsive to the needs of the nation. It is necessary to formulate clearly the aims of the degree course and then set about constructing training programmes for teachers to give students the required experience and education.
- (5) Conservatism on the part of concerned authorities, and lack of experience and expertise are important factors that come in the way of achieving this objective to the fullest possible extent.

96. Undoubtedly, the change-over from the existing pattern to the new 10+2+3 pattern by any State is not easy. It has to face several administrative and other problems. The biggest criticism against the introduction of 10+2+3 pattern where it has been done is that it was rather done in a haste and without adequate preparation. The curriculum was heavy, the subjects were too many and the syllabus was beyond the comprehension of the students. There were imbalances in allocation of time for study of different subjects of the curriculum. Some books (or some chapters) newly prepared were either not interesting or not so relevant. The "no-pass no-fail" system and the system of "grades" did not work and had to be withdrawn.

97. There were also problems with regard to the selection of secondary schools for upgradation to +2 stage and also about downgradation of some 11-year higher secondary schools to 10-year schools because of political and other pressures. The problem of location of +2 stage still remains unsolved in States like Assam and Maharashtra where the +2 is located both in schools and colleges. The problem of equivalence of school leaving examination of different states and of admission of students to various professional colleges after completion of +2 is also quite serious in some States. The controversy whether there should be only one common syllabus in science and mathematics in class IX and X under the new pattern, or whether there should be two alternative syllabuses in each of these subjects to suit different ability groups and varying needs depending upon whether the students are going to opt for elective science and mathematics in higher classes or not, is also unresolved.

98. Lengthening of the duration of higher secondary course from 11 years to 12 years also means provision for additional financial resources. In view of the pressures for expansion of educational opportunities at the elementary stage and the priority programme of removal of adult illiteracy as also the necessity to clear the backlog of inadequate infrastructure and other educational facilities, the States have been finding it difficult to provide adequate resources for adding one more year to the school stage. Unless in the Seventh Plan which begins in 1985 some additional provisions are made either at the State or at the Central level or by both, introduction of 10+2+3 pattern on a uniform basis throughout the country seems still a question mark.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE

99. The new educational pattern is still an accept proposition in India and is recognised as an important educational reform. While its objectives have been partly achieved in some States, much is left to be desired. In order that it is uniformly introduced in an effective manner throughout the country, the following strategies may be worth consideration :

- (1) The 10+2+3 pattern should be considered as a means to reorganise educational system and to undertake curriculum renewal and other related activities so as to make education more relevant to our needs. Mere structural change, which has been the case with some States, is not enough.
- (2) The States which have not yet introduced the new pattern or having introduced it have not yet adopted the new curriculum, new textbooks, new teaching methods and new evaluation techniques should benefit from the experience of the States like Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka as also the Central Board of Secondary Education. It may be advantageous for them to learn not only from their achievements but also from the problems and difficulties they had faced and the way they were able to solve them.
- (3) Each State having the old pattern should take a firm decision about the date on which the new pattern is to be introduced in a particular class and take adequate advance action for planning and preparation for the switch-over. This should include revision of curricula, preparation and publication of new textbooks and teacher guides, orientation of teachers to the new pattern of education and new content of different subjects, training in new teaching methodologies and new evaluation technique.
- (4) Proper management of change-over from traditional to the new pattern of education is a *sine qua non* for the optimum utilisation of available resources and for ensuring that there are no delays

in the implementation of the various steps for the change. Agencies like NCERT and NIEPA should provide necessary support in not only orientation of teachers but also of educational planners and administrators at different levels, including institutional heads, in preparation for and implementation of the new pattern. Orientation of parents and public in general may also be necessary.

- (5) Vocationalisation of plus two is crucial to the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern. Special attention should be paid to diversification of courses and introduction of vocational stream on a large scale. Such a step will help increase productivity and contribute to national development. In order that vocationalisation may be successful, vocational surveys should be conducted and linkages established with industry, and other establishments. Moreover, proper steps should also be taken to recognise vocational courses for apprenticeship and employment in Government, organised and public sector undertakings. A flexible approach to vocationalisation of higher secondary education in terms of courses, duration, appointment of teachers, evaluation methods would be helpful.
- (6) Administrative issues should be effectively tackled and norms formulated for upgrading/downgrading of the schools, location of + 2, upgrading of laboratory facilities, enrichment of libraries and assessing the teacher requirements.
- (7) Suitable arrangements for monitoring and evaluation of the programme on a continuous basis should be made.
- (8) The State Institutes of Education/SCERTs should play a major role in bringing about the change which should contribute to raising the quality of teaching-learning process.
- (9) As the 10 + 2 + 3 pattern would help to create a national system of education, the Ministry of Education and Culture should have a meaningful dialogue with the States concerned and assess their requirements. Necessary financial help may also be given where considered necessary so that the lack of finance does not become an excuse for the States not to effect a change-over.

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A Study of National Service Scheme as an Educational Reform

L. R. Shah

Introduction

With the attainment of independence and the changed socio-political and developmental contexts, leaders, administrators and educators began to raise serious doubts about the functional value and relevance of higher education to the myriad problems confronting the nation. The Government were keen to explore ways of making higher education a more effective medium of social change and economic development. Recommendations of these *ad hoc* Committees and Commissions, though useful, could not be implemented by the Government for want of resources. The paucity of funds continues to act as a major constraint even to-day. Despite growing realisation of the limited functional use of higher education, and its dysfunctional character as evidenced by the yawning gap between the elite and the masses, no radical steps in the University education system were taken for want of money. However, the realisation of lacunae in the system of higher education compelled planners and administrators to formulate a pilot scheme which, by involving students and teachers on a voluntary-cum-selective basis, may give a much-needed community and service orientation to higher education to bridge the gap between the town and gown. The concern of the Government to search for and evolve a pragmatic education policy gave birth to the National Service Scheme in 1969 — the Gandhi Centenary Year.

The Scheme was designed to impart education through community service. As of present, the Scheme seeks to involve student youth to work with and among people, to initiate social action projects and thus enhance their knowledge and skills through a confrontation with reality, to learn the application of knowledge and skills and test their validity in solving community problems, and to prepare themselves for assuming democratic leadership and responsibilities in a constructive manner to build the nation.

It is heartening to note that in its fourteen years of operation the Scheme has brought about significant attitudinal changes amongst the volunteers who have actively participated in its regular programmes, such as institutional projects, evacuee camps, adult education; programmes related to nutrition, health and child care, special camping programmes like Youth Against Drought, Famine, and Youth Against Dirt and Disease, Youth for Ecological Development etc. Durable community assets have been created with the help of nationwide programmes and local community participation. Student and teacher participation in the various projects has brought about improvement in teaching and learning as both teachers and students have been able to acquaint themselves with the social reality from close quarters. For example, teachers and students in economics may have read volumes on poverty but not many had seen, nor they had experienced, as to how poverty inflicts the poor, diminishes their productivity, incapacitates them physically, lowers their ambitions and paralyses them socially and economically with such severity that they cease to be participants in the processes and the products of planned development. They are thus resigned to their fate. Such a perception of the socio-economic reality from the field has set in motion a thinking in the minds of some of the teacher participants that the National Service Scheme should be made an integral part of the curriculum. The teachers of medical colleges by participating in camps in villages and working with slum dwellers have realised that their place lies in the community and not in the hospitals.

Hardly had the Scheme completed two years of its existence when it was called upon in 1971 to contribute its mite in tackling the problems of evacuees from East Pakistan (now Bangladesh). Thousands of NSS volunteers from different parts of the country went to work in transit camps and rendered assistance to evacuees in registration, mass vaccination, distribution of ration, clothes and medicines, pitching and dismantling of tents, running of kitchens, and disposal of garbage and of dead bodies. The work of volunteers brought acclaim not only from administrators but also from the evacuees.

In 1972-73 the country was visited by the worst ever famine in the recorded history which struck 21.13 crores of people in 227 districts of fourteen States. A special programme known as "Youth Against Famine" was drawn up by the Ministry of Education, Government of India to involve student and non-student youth. The idea of the programme was to foster a realisation among the youth of their social responsibility. It also aimed to provide them experience in planning, organising and implementing the projects and programmes of relief; to deepen their understanding of the problems and to improve their skills in the

management of projects; to give them opportunity of working hand in hand with the members of the afflicted community; to identify themselves with the life styles of the afflicted people; and to appreciate the dignity of labour. Seven hundred and forty-five camps of varying durations — ranging from ten days to over a month — were held in the country and the Government incurred an expenditure of about Rs.73 lakhs. Ninety-five per cent of these camps were held in the scorching heat of the summer. Sixty-three thousand youth, including eighteen thousand non-student youth, participated in this venture. They deepened or built wells and tanks, repaired or constructed roads, worked on earthen dams and other minor irrigation projects, planted saplings, organised first aid centres and immunised five thousand persons. Non-formal education programmes relating to health, nutrition and sanitation, bank nationalisation, state take-over of trading in food-grains, working of Mahila Mandals etc. were also taken up as part of the camp. Volunteers of the Universities who participated in the camps were able to build durable community assets. The intangible benefits of cooperative action which the local community and participants derived are difficult to measure by any yardstick.

Attitudinal changes both among the participants and members of the local community were remarkable indeed. It will, therefore, not be irrelevant to cite some instances of these changes. A Rajput headman of the village who had considered use of a spade by him as unworthy of his caste and had not offered water to volunteers on the first day inaugurated the construction of a well by striking the spade twentyfive times instead of five and bade farewell to volunteers on the last day with drums and bugles in a procession. The entire village looked gay on that occasion. In the same village a girl who was ailing with earache was feared to be haunted by evil spirits and inter-dining of the caste group with this family had stopped for this reason. The caste leaders desired a community feast for driving out the devil by using the good offices of a Pundit. Volunteers persuaded the attending priest to perform the ceremony by accepting a token sum of Rs.1.25 paise and a coconut which was offered to him on behalf of the Camp. The outcaste family was accepted by the group after this event, and the caste leaders were persuaded to allow the girl to be treated by a doctor as well.

In another instance the slum dwellers refused to give their spades to the volunteers to clean the "Gandha Nalla" as it would pollute their spades. They preferred to live in the dirty surroundings rather than join the volunteers and give their implements to them for use. But the persistent efforts of the volunteers brought them "in" not only with their spades but with all the members of their families to clean their surroundings and maintain them clean in future also.

Just as there were changes in the attitudes of the community, volunteers also experienced attitudinal change. When some of the campers learnt that a Harijan boy had been employed to fetch water and wash utensils, they became so agitated that the boy had to be dismissed. The matter was discussed for a couple of days in the camp and eventually the same Harijan boy was hired for the remaining period of the camp to fetch water for the campers. In one camp it was a rule that left-over food will not be wasted; it would rather be consumed either at the time of next meal or breakfast. One girl who was not accustomed to eating stale food complained about it and when she was told that people belonging to inferior castes ate food which they collected by sieving cow-dung during the harvest season, it sounded to her like a fairy tale. She never complained about food thereafter. Other volunteers who came from well-to-do families felt guilty that they were leading a comfortable life only at the expense of their not so lucky brethren. Some medical students realised the enormity of rural health problems and their role in tackling them. The local administration became aware for the first time that the student power could be used for constructive work. The impact of this special project was manifold and this abundantly answers the question posed by critics of the Scheme that hired labour would have done the job more economically and in less time. Apparently such a reasoning sounds plausible but a closer examination of it leads to its outright rejection because attitudinal changes among hired labourers would not have occurred at all, let alone changes in the attitudes of the local community through their work. Instances quoted above show that work on projects was not a one-way traffic and when volunteers built roads, to give an example, roads "built" their lives and also the lives of some of the members of the local community. Students learnt beyond doubt that financial resources alone cannot build projects. They realised very soon that completion of a project requires public education, consensus, organisational efforts and co-operative action and that social service camps provide opportunities to attend to these equally important aspects and thus serve as a medium for the effective utilization of the scarce financial resource for the benefit of the community.

Similarly, the subsequent campaign addressed itself to non-formal education, afforestation, nutrition, health and sanitation, child care, propagation of the idea of alternative sources of energy like use of solar energy, gobar gas plants etc. The available reports indicate that both volunteers and members of the local community actively participated in these camps and have requested to repeat this experiment during subsequent years.

Encouraged by the achievements of NSS, the Universities and the State Governments have started thinking in terms of providing incentives to NSS volunteers and teachers. As far as volunteers are concerned, some

of the universities are thinking of assigning some additional marks for NSS work which would be added to the total of marks secured by a student in the final examination. Other universities are thinking of condoning attendance in case of its shortage on the same basis as is done for sportsmen on NCC cadets. The matter of giving credit to teachers who work as programme officers is also under consideration. One of the States treats participation of programme officers in camps during vacations as earned leave as per the rules of the Government. Preference to volunteers and teachers in selection and promotion is also under the consideration of some of the State Governments. One university included NSS as a paper for the degree examination. Since complete integration of NSS with the curricula poses initial difficulties in terms of resources, placement of students, preparation of teachers etc. various alternatives are being tried to bring NSS closer to the teaching of some of the academic subjects.

Since total integration of NSS with the curriculum will take some time, the Universities/Colleges were advised to adopt a village or an urban area for its development on an inter-disciplinary basis. We have reasons to believe that 3600 villages have been adopted by NSS Units so far. A group of selected teachers and students are expected to prepare a development plan for the area on the basis of available local resources, co-ordinate community and outside resources and take concerted action for tackling some of the problems. The Central Government sent circulars to the State Governments for examining the feasibility of setting up permanent village centres for NSS volunteers, and delegating the responsibility of tackling developmental problems of such centres or adopted villages to the concerned NSS Units. The local administration were asked to extend necessary co-operation if such projects materialise in the universities and colleges of their districts. The participation of post-graduate students and teachers in selected numbers on an inter-disciplinary basis is bound to have another advantage apart from the problems that it will seek to tackle or targets that it would set to achieve. Such an endeavour would require of each discipline to spell out specifically that part of its knowledge content which may be applied to tackle community problems. In other words, the participating disciplines may be required to group the subject matter in such a way that one group is taught in the class-room whereas a major portion of the second group is taught through joint exploration and participation in a community setting. This type of planning and restructuring of the curricula should provide a necessary feedback, on a limited basis though, for making teaching in the University more functional. This should also serve as a preparation for eventual integration of NSS with the curricula. Needless to mention that in the selection of permanent village centres, adoption of villages or urban areas for development by NSS Units, experimentation with the inter-disciplinary

approach and with the deployment of the volunteers of the National Service Volunteer Scheme, co-operation of the Departments of Agriculture, P.W.D., Revenue, Education, Health and Family Planning, Social Welfare, Industries Welfare of Backward Classes, Planning, and Community Development will be imperative. In collaboration with these departments, volunteers may take up such projects as adult education, non-formal education for the school drop-outs, cottage industries, preparation of village records, rural housing, health and sanitation. protection of rights, legal aid etc. Such an approach will make higher education more "community-centred".

Historical Background

Ever since independence, the institution of social and labour service for students has been urged, both as a measure of educational reform and as a means to improve the quality of educated manpower. The First Five Year Plan adopted by the Government of India in 1952 stressed the need for compulsory social and labour service for students for a period of about a year. The economic value of such labour was not the chief consideration, as the primary aim of the period of training was to build up students as workers and disciplined citizens. The vast place which manual work occupied in the life of the nation ought to be, to some extent, reflected in the activities of every citizen. The service could take a variety of forms but it should develop significance in proportion to its relation to the real needs of the community. The association of students with such work would bring them an intellectual and emotional awareness of the various tasks of national reconstruction going on in the country. The doubts regarding the desirability of introducing compulsion in the matter related only to short-term difficulties and did not seriously touch any question of principle. A period of preparation and experimentation was, however, necessary before the service could be put on a compulsory footing, but in the meanwhile, the scheme should be introduced on a voluntary basis with certain inducements. Those going through such a course would naturally be more fitted for positions of responsibility. The First Five Year Plan concluded with saying that the organisers of this scheme should be, as far as possible, college professors for whose training adequate provision should be made.

The response of students to participate in these schemes has been encouraging and those successfully completing their period of training have shown some signs of the desired improvement. The two major drawbacks of these schemes were: firstly, in view of their limited scope, it was not possible to cover a large majority of students; and, secondly, owing to the short duration of the period of service, the work undertaken was mostly of marginal significance. The operation of these schemes has, however, served as a period of experimentation and preparation.

The question of introducing compulsion in this field was raised from time to time and was forcefully voiced by the Prime Minister in his letter of the 9th June, 1958 to the Chief Ministers in these words: "I have been thinking that it would be very good for our people to have a period of compulsory service for all young men and young women between certain age limits, say 19 to 22. In most countries of the Western world there is conscription for military service. This is not considered to be an infringement of their liberties or freedom. We do not want any such thing for military purposes, but some kind of compulsory period of training and service for every person appears to me to be very necessary. That period should be one year and for, say, six months in the year everyone should live in camps under some kind of military discipline. This will give them discipline, physical health and capacity for manual work and to work together for productive schemes. The next six months might well depend on the capacity and training of the individual. Another advantage of this will be to bring together everyone at the same level, whether he is rich or poor, and make him do exactly the same type of work, part of which will be manual." The Prime Minister then went on to say that in view of the enormous cost involved if the whole of India was brought within the purview of the scheme, it was not necessary to start it in a big way but everyone between certain ages could be made liable, by law, to serve and this could be done in suitable batches. The Prime Minister further endorsed the idea that every graduate before he gets his degree, should put in a certain period of service in an allotted sphere, depending upon his training and capacity and including work in a village or a tribal area. The Prime Minister directed the Ministry of Education to formulate a suitable scheme for national service, making a beginning with the students between the High School and the College.

A draft outline of a scheme for national service was accordingly prepared by the Ministry of Education and placed before the Education Ministers' Conference held in New Delhi on the 8th and 9th August, 1959. The Conference recommended that "(i) the question of introducing the scheme on a compulsory basis should be considered after the experience of a pilot project to be operated for a few years; (ii) pilot projects of three months' duration consistent with the objectives of the scheme, and preferably one for each university, for students volunteering to participate in the programme, may be organized; and (iii) a committee may be appointed to work out the details of the proposed pilot projects."

In pursuance of the recommendations of the Education Ministers' Conference, the Union Education Minister appointed a committee on August 28, 1959 under the Chairmanship of Dr. C.D. Deshmukh.

Guiding Principles

The appointment of the Committee by the Ministry of Education and the inclusion of many educationists indicates that the scheme of National Service to be worked out by the Committee was primarily intended to be educational in nature, scope and functions. The scheme should, therefore, be visualized as a measure of educational reform directed towards remedying the observed deficiencies in our educational system. As has been discerned by educationists, the present system is not fully attuned to the needs and aspirations of the independent contemporary India and has not been successful in developing the kind of attitudes which are required for the task of national reconstruction. By and large, students fail to cultivate a positive sense of discipline; also they are usually averse to manual labour; moreover, they seem to lack a spirit of social service or a sense of social purpose and the idealism and enthusiasm which are usually associated with youth and which are of vital importance for a developing country like India. Apart from these deficiencies which are more of a social character, the present system does not stimulate that curiosity and love of scholarship which is the most valuable asset of an educated individual.

One of the glaring defects noticed in the present-day education in our schools and colleges is the extremely poor contact, or lack of it, between the students and teachers in educational institutions, on the one hand, and the work of national reconstruction, particularly in the rural areas, on the other. One unfortunate result of this state of affairs has been that the educated youth continue to adhere to certain false values and unrealistic standards, which are manifested in hankering after routine and uninspiring jobs in Government offices or industrial undertakings; in the public and private sectors, and in a desire to lead an easy life in urban areas with all the facilities for entertainment and other diversions of city life. It is an irony of fate that even those who come from rural areas become reluctant, after going through the "educational" process, to go back to these areas, preferring to live in cities attracted by their superficial amenities and comforts and unaware of the inspiring constructive effort awaiting them in the countryside.

Recommendations of Deshmukh Committee

Objectives: The primary objective of national service should be to provide a more lively awareness on the part of the educated youth of the purposes and processes of the nation's reconstruction efforts, especially in the rural areas, and to inculcate in them a sense of discipline, a spirit of social service, dignity of manual labour and dedication to the cause of the country in order to make up the deficiencies of the present educational system such as lack of discipline, absence of self-reliance, want of maturity

and lack of idealism, and thus prepare the educated youth, the future leaders of the country, for the enormous tasks of national reconstruction requiring arduous, sustained and responsible work and to safeguard national security requiring a reserve of trained personnel available to meet any emergency.

Compulsion: It is necessary that any scheme of national service must be compulsory if it is to be effective and is to make a real impact to improve the quality of manpower needed by the country. A voluntary scheme would have the drawback of leaving out a good many, if not the majority, of students proposed to be covered and would not be assured of success unless sufficient inducements were offered. If improvement on the national scale is to be the aim, which it ought to be, no voluntary scheme can ever hope to achieve it. There can be no objection, on principle or otherwise, to compulsion as it is the right of the State to ask its citizens for a period of service in return for what it does for them.

No exemptions are to be allowed on any ground. The students who are not physically fit for manual work could be asked to do other suitable work. Cases of hospitalisation are another category and may be exempted only for the period of hospitalization and legitimate convalescence. In particular, there should be absolutely no opportunity for the rich and the influential to manipulate exemptions for their children.

Duration: It is essential that national service should be of a sufficiently long duration to inculcate in the young adolescent the values of discipline, social service, dignity of manual labour and dedication to the country. It is necessary to expose young minds to good influences over an adequate period if lasting effect is to be secured on the growing personalities and developing character of the nation's youth. A period of at least nine months to a year is the minimum required for achieving the objectives of national service.

Stage: The best stage for drafting the youth in national service is when they pass out of Higher Secondary school or Pre-University class and are prepared to enter life or the university. A year's national service at that stage would greatly fill the gap left by the present secondary education and would equip a young person better both for life or the university. Those entering life would be more mature, more disciplined and better prepared for the responsibilities of their work. Those who go to the university would be more self-reliant, more disciplined and better equipped for benefiting from university education. As a matter of fact, the observation of a young person in national service spread over a year would enable the educational authorities to select better material for university education on the basis of academic and other achievements, and thus check the growing

indiscipline and wastage which are becoming the bane of university education. Those students who are found to be talented and gifted during the operation of the national service should be given scholarships and other benefits to pursue higher education. The national service thus has tremendous possibilities of being utilized as means of helping in judging suitability for admissions to universities on the basis of adjudged capacity of students to benefit from higher education.

Content: The content should be so devised as to effect an all-round improvement of the personality and character of the adolescent. There need be no dead uniformity — none is advocated — but the following ingredients should be dovetailed in any overall programme for the service:

- (i) *Military Discipline:* The students should lead a disciplined life for nine months to one year comparable to that in the armed forces. No breach of discipline should be tolerated. Adequate sanctions should be provided to deter any breach of discipline.
- (ii) *Social Service and Manual Labour:* Social service and manual labour should be rendered for at least four hours every day in the areas selected for work under the national service. Manual labour would be an essential part of the work for every student. The labour and social service may take diverse forms depending upon the locale and the needs of the community. The work should be so organized that the community derives tangible and lasting benefit. This will inspire confidence in youth and also give them pride of achievement.
- (iii) *General Education:* So that the national service should not lead to a gap in the education of adolescents, it should also provide broad general education laying stress on the improvement of English, learning of Hindi and other regional languages, improvement of general knowledge, acquaintance with India's cultural heritage and programmes of social and economic planning, etc. so that the participants on completing the national service are fit and active enough to take their place in life even if they do not enter the university. The period of national service should also be fully utilized for the emotional integration of the youth with the country and ideals it is working for. The service should also provide some opportunities for self-expression in cultural activities like music, dance, drama, but care should be taken to ensure that they do not distract from the main purposes of the service. Adequate reading materials such as books, periodicals, magazines etc. should be provided so that the youth can acquire habits of self-study, critical inquiry and love for scholarship and knowledge.

A programme worked out suitably with the above ingredients should meet the needs of all-round development of the growing adult and lead to integration of his personality. This would not only develop true discipline — physical, intellectual, moral and spiritual — but also inculcate in the youth qualities like the love of the country and dedication to social work.

Organizational Set-up: A programme of national service of the envisaged quality and magnitude should be a bridge between the terminal stage of secondary education and entry into life or institutions of higher education. Though it will draw upon the resources of the Defence Forces, Universities, Educationists, Government departments both at the Centre and in the States engaged in social and economic development programmes, the programme suggested by the Committee would require for its implementation an organizational set-up which should be broad-based and independent. The programme must be truly national in concept and in execution and should be so devised that it develops the capacity to extend its scope to cover other categories of citizens in appropriate age groups in course of time. While it is urgent that we concentrate our efforts on the educated youth, the other youth of the country are no less important for the larger interests of the country. In view of the potentialities of a comprehensive programme visualized, such a service might ultimately cover all the youth of the country, but this will require as a pre-requisite the spread of secondary education to all young persons below the age of 17.

It is, therefore, suggested that a National Board should be set up to plan, implement and evaluate a programme of national service. This should, however, be preceded by careful preparation of a detailed plan of work for youth and for this purpose, it would be desirable to set up a representative working group of Educationists, Administrators, Defence Experts and other interests.

Finance: An investment in human resources is not to be viewed in the context of economic value of the product of such investment, as the primary aim is to build up educated young people as disciplined citizens and devoted workers so that they are an asset to the nation. The national service is thus to be viewed as a nation-building programme and any cost incurred on it would more than repay itself in the long run. The economic value of the productive work which the youth are expected to perform would not be in itself inconsiderable and should be reckoned in any estimate of the cost involved. The cost of national service, though heavy, should not be beyond our means and should be worked out in detail by the Working Group.

Thereupon the Ministry of Education requested Dr. K.G. Saiyidain to examine the recommendations of the Deshmukh Committee and work out a scheme for implementation through universities and colleges.

Dr. K.G. Saiyidain's Views

In India, the divorce between education and life, which has long been a feature of our system, became more accentuated during the British regime when education was geared to certain narrow and limited objectives. It was manifested in many ways but, above all, in the neglect of manual and practical work in education which continued — and, to some extent, continues — to be academic and unilateral in its approach. Educationists have, therefore, been concerned a good deal during the last couple of decades about the need to bridge this gulf so that the transition from school (or college) to the wider world outside may be smooth and easy and not create tensions and maladjustments.

It became necessary, therefore, to adopt other co-curricular and extra-curricular approaches to meet an emergency situation and to supplement and reinforce the work of the formal educational agencies. The different movements like Scouting and Guiding, Auxiliary Cadet Corps, National Cadet Corps, National Discipline Scheme, Labour and Social Service Camps have been all, broadly speaking, ancillary educational efforts to provide a comprehensive training for children and youth and to adjust them to the multiple demands of modern life. The National Service Scheme was envisaged as one of the important bridges to span the gulf between education and life. One of its essential aims was to vivify, in a practical way, some of the important national objectives in the minds of our youth and to transform them into motive forces of conduct.

NSS as a Voluntary activity

The argument in favour of compulsion mainly was that, without making attendance at the work camps obligatory for all concerned, it will not be possible to make a real and nationwide impact on the mind of youth. Under a scheme of voluntary service the likelihood is that only those will come in who already have a certain social sense and would consequently be inclined to take up social service any way. It will, to some extent, be like "converting the converted". On the other hand, a large number of youth would stay away because their temperament and upbringing or the influence of their social environment had not imbued them with social spirit. But these are precisely the persons in whom it is necessary to inculcate the spirit of service. It might also, in effect, mean confining the Scheme largely to the comparatively poorer youth from the rural areas who have no rooted reluctance to doing manual work and leaving out the well-to-do youth and the urban youth who normally have little chance to put in any effective manual labour and are generally inclined to look down

upon it as somehow degrading. Conscription also makes it easier to enforce equality of treatment and, if the period is long enough, a more effective orientation towards rural life and problems can be secured in this way.

There are many arguments on the other side. There are some persons who are opposed on principle to any form of compulsion, particularly to compulsion for social service. Their view is that the idea of compulsion is not compatible with service, that service which does not spring from the inner urges of a person's mind lacks grace and savour. If you order a person to dig the earth for six hours a day or plant trees or terrace the hills and he has no choice but to do it, he is not rendering "social service" in any real sense of the term but reluctantly carrying out a possible unwelcome order.

There were voices to the contrary which agreed with him that the idea of social service of regarding the self as a dedicated instrument of the social good — should somehow be built into the minds of all youth and, for this purpose, both educational institutions and various extra-curricular activities should be utilised. But the line of argument which came up most frequently and emphatically was not one of principle but of feasibility, i.e. whether it was wise or practical to start the Scheme on a universal and compulsory basis and whether, in doing so, we were not courting failure which may queer the pitch for this most promising experiment for many years to come. To ensure the success of the Scheme it was necessary to ensure full public support and approval. If it is "forced" on the youth and their parents unwillingly and their reaction was negative, there was a serious risk of the movement being defeated or discredited. It was also argued that, in a country of the size of India, it was not realistic to look for very quick results or to hope for a radical change of outlook in millions of youth without adopting totalitarian methods which may be efficient on a short run view but are always attended by serious long-range dangers. So, even on the part of those who were in favour of compulsion eventually, there was a feeling that the Scheme should not be initially launched on that basis but should be preceded by pilot projects and experiments with different kinds of camps and patterns of organisation, e.g., rural and urban camps; long and short duration camps; camps attended by students only and mixed camps for students and non-students; camps with different types of staff and with varying proportion of manual and educational programmes. It would not be psychologically justified to expect that one set and rigid pattern, devised in an *ad hoc* manner would suit lakhs of students. The guiding principle in camp life and activities — even more than in colleges — should be elasticity, informality and experimentation. This did not mean laxity or casualness or infirm discipline but implied consideration for individual differences and local and group needs. This was certainly more difficult but also eventually more rewarding.

It was further suggested to consider the advisability of including some non-students or uneducated youth also into these camps. Respect had to be inculcated not only for work but for the worker also and this could be achieved (or, at least, attempted) through working cooperatively with neighbouring village/town youths.

Another important aspect of camp organisation was the establishment of good relations with, and winning the cooperation of, the local community. It was felt that it should be the endeavour of the campers, whenever they are working in or near any rural or urban community, to work with the local people, interest them in the projects and, where feasible, involve them in their implementation. In NSS, it was envisaged that many of the projects would form part of the work being done in community project areas and, therefore, the importance of such an approach became even greater. The object was not merely the hardening of their muscles but making them sensitive to the rural situation and the rural people and their problems. This could not be achieved by the camps functioning in a kind of "splendid isolation" in which the local community only played the part of sceptical or curious spectator.

While the manual work assignments should be realistic and strenuous, these should be held within reasonable limits so as to allow adequate room for other aspects of the programme — educational and recreational. Unless the programme was well-balanced, it would not be able to sustain the interest of the kinds of youth who are to be drawn into our scheme. It was really necessary that the educated youth, many of whom are likely to go for higher education, should do a great deal of manual work. If this aspect was over-emphasised, it was argued, it might create distaste instead of inculcating a sense of dignity of labour. In our situation, there was a special importance and justification for educated youth taking up such work. But there was validity in the plea that this should form part of a broader concept of social service which would include a variety of activities for the common good. Medical work, provision of elementary education, teaching of simple hygiene or domestic skills to village men and women, running of children's and women's centres, encouraging recreational and art and craft activities and the "adoption" of particular villages for many-sided service may not be manual labour, but these were certainly useful forms of social service which could be suitably included in the programme in a reasonable proportion.

The leaders and the staff should be given adequate training, theoretical and practical, in the various functions which they would be expected to perform. The leader would have to work as a member and participant of the group, not merely issuing orders but training youth in the art of leadership, not "indulging in self-display or power seeking" but

facilitating the free development of those under his supervision by delegating some of his functions as work director or educational leader to them. It was necessary for them to have some understanding of "group dynamics" — how to conduct meetings and discussions, how to elicit active response and how to provide guidance and counselling.

The report of the Deshmukh Committee as well as some other educational bodies had suggested the inclusion of both boys and girls in Social Service Programmes. Any compulsory scheme of national service, applicable to all girls, was out of the question under Indian conditions. If they were to be drawn into it, it would have to be on a voluntary basis, and separate and suitable types of camps would have to be organised for them. The general consensus of opinion in the country would not favour the idea of mixed camps on a large scale, nor will the parents be willing to send their daughters far away from home for a period of several months. Moreover, the type of work which they might be able to do in a camp would have to be considered carefully with due regard to their own capacity and limitations and the needs of the community in which they were to work. This should not be interpreted to mean that social work in any way was less important for girls than for boys. On the contrary, it is felt that the idea of service came more naturally to women — certainly to the Indian women — than to the men. But we must take realistic conditions into account and plan feasible types of service for them under an appropriate organizational pattern.

Dr. Saiyidain was convinced that the idea of service came more naturally to women — certainly to the Indian women — than to men. But he suggested that we must take realistic conditions into account and plan feasible types of service for them under an appropriate organisational pattern.

The "pre-orientation" to camp work, he felt, was of special importance in the case of girls.

Thinking and discussion about the nature of the Scheme had passed through several phases amongst various educational bodies and authorities to which a brief reference may be made at this stage. The Radhakrishnan Commission had originally envisaged the idea of National Service by youth but it favoured a voluntary approach. It regarded conscription applied to social service as "a contradiction in terms". In the First Five-Year Plan also, a voluntary approach, on a pilot project basis, was recommended in the first instance, which may eventually pave the way to compulsion. As a result of this proposal, labour and social service camps were started on a voluntary basis. In 1958, the Prime Minister had desired that the problem be examined with a view to formulating feasible

proposals for introducing about a year of National Service on a compulsory basis for all students before they take their degree.

In 1959, the Conference of Education Ministers expressed the view that it was desirable to introduce the scheme but this should be done on a voluntary basis at first and, for the first few years, a number of limited pilot projects should be tried out. This was also the general trend of opinion amongst other educational bodies. However, the Deshmukh Committee which met later in 1959 expressed a radically different opinion and recommended compulsion for all boys and girls without any exemption — except for medical reasons — for a period of about nine months to a year. It called for the introduction of military training, discipline in camps and recommended four hours of manual work and social service every day. With a few dissentient voices, these proposals were broadly approved.

The idea of introducing a National Service Scheme in India had high educational justification and possibilities. It was welcomed not only by many educational authorities and educationists in India but also in several other countries. There was general agreement that this type of experience could be very valuable for youth at the stage at which it was proposed to provide it, i.e., after the completion of the secondary education.

Dr. K.G. Saiyidain was of the view that we would be courting a grave risk of failure if the quality of the experiment was allowed to become diluted by the desire for producing quick or superficially spectacular results. In his view the highest emphasis should be placed on the training of the right kind of leaders, who may be drawn partly from educational institutions and partly from social workers, community project staff and other likely sources. In due course of time, however, they should be increasingly drawn from the youth who have passed through NSS, have shown special interest in such work and have acquired successful experience of leadership through actual participation.

The possibility of starting a variety of short-term technical courses for the campers on a voluntary basis, somewhat on the lines of the CCC and the Yugoslavia work camps should be explored so that they may discover their practical aptitudes and incidentally learn skills likely to be useful to them in later life.

Dr. Saiyidain further suggested that the overall direction of the policy and programmes should be in the hands of educationists — persons with understanding of educational issues, not necessarily professional teachers — who may be assisted by technically qualified and competent persons to supervise the project work and enable the campers not only to complete their work assignments but also to acquire useful technical skill and knowledge relating to the project. Army personnel should be utilised for

looking after the "logistics" of the Scheme and for providing such physical training as may be considered necessary. Care should be taken to see that the camps are not "militarised" as had happened in some other countries with undesirable consequences.

In order to make the work camp programmes truly educative and appealing to youth, they should be made varied and broad-based so that, in addition to giving the educating experience of socially productive work and service, they would cater to their other academic and cultural interests also. For this purpose, there should be a carefully designed educational programme — particularly in the camps of longer duration — and social and cultural activities and hobbies of different kinds should be engaged in the afternoons and evenings. This work should be done on a voluntary basis and should draw youth by its intrinsic appeal and attraction.

The selection of the right kind of projects is crucial to the success of the Scheme. These should be real, exacting, of perceptible social use and make a genuine appeal and challenge to youth. They should be formulated in cooperation with project supervisors and educationists and, in some suitable form, youth organizations should be associated with their planning.

To keep the movement lively and creative, opportunities should be provided to encourage exchange of ideas and experiences amongst workers at various levels and for the camps being occasionally visited by advisory committees of educationists and others who will not only assess the work but carry across promising ideas and experiments from one part of the country to another and thus guard against the possibility of the movement becoming mechanised.

The Education Commission (1964-66) recommended that a programme of National Service should be developed as an alternative to the N.C.C.

The above recommendations were considered in the State Education Ministers' Conference held in April 1967. It adopted and recommended that the NCC and NSS programme should be alternatives to each other in the sense that a student should be required to opt for one of the two.

The Conference of Vice-Chancellors held in September, 1967 also resolved that the recommendations of the Education Commission regarding National Service by students at all stages were generally agreed to. The Cabinet considered a Note submitted on the 17th February, 1968. It approved the Scheme in principle and desired that the details be worked out by the Minister of Education in consultation with the Deputy Prime Minister. On July 3, 1968, the then Education Minister consulted the

Standing Committee of the Inter-University Board and the University Grants Commission about launching the programmes during the current year. The meeting welcomed the introduction of the Scheme and felt that the scheme should be so organised that even though it may start on a voluntary basis, it could be expected that a very large proportion of the students over a period of the next few years would be participating in the NCC and NSS and NSO.

On July 27, 1968, the Union Minister of Education, Dr. T. Sen, addressed a letter to all State Education Ministers and the Vice-Chancellors of Universities on the subject of introduction of the National Service Corps. Along with this letter guidelines of the Scheme covering the objectives, development of programme, orientation of teachers and selected senior students with the assistance of Schools of Social Work, identification of camps and campus development projects were enclosed. The financial arrangements between the Centre and States were also spelt out.

The matter was further discussed at a meeting held in the Education Minister's room on 19th December, 1968, and it was decided by the Education Minister that in view of the resource position, the programme will be operated on a pilot basis and will be voluntary and selective. It was also decided that the programme for 1968-69 will only comprise the following :

- (i) Orientating the teachers for the programme in the schools of Social Work;
- (ii) Orientating student leaders in a 10-day Camp at Sevagram, Wardha; and
- (iii) Launching of selected projects of N.S.C in a few universities to start the scheme.

Subsequently, a paper was prepared which was discussed in the Secretary's room on the 26th July, 1969. A few universities were selected from each State to start the programme with about 40,000 students in the year 1969-70. A very flexible and academic approach was made to develop the programme from below thereby leaving universities and colleges largely free to develop programmes of their own or with the help of nearby schools of social work.

The students were involved in running of reception centres for the refugees; registration; preparation of ration cards; distribution of rations; rendering assistance to the doctors in medical check-up and treatment of the sick refugees and immunisation work, manning of milk distribution

centres; improving of the sanitary conditions of the camps; garbage clearing; educating refugees about health and sanitation in the camps, rendering assistance to the camp authorities in the distribution of relief and gift supplies; secretarial assistance to the camp authorities, organising recreational and cultural programmes for the refugees; coaching classes for the refugee children; pitching of tents; night patrolling; watch and ward duties; and socio-economic surveys of the refugees.

The students worked with great devotion and responsibility to alleviate the sufferings of the refugees. For some of the students the situation at the camps was so much emotionally charged that they even distributed their personal belongings and luggage among the refugees. Students and teachers from many universities launched in a big way a vigorous drive for the collection of donations in cash and kind for the refugees.

The students were very enthusiastic about donating blood for the jawans. It is estimated that about 8000 students drawn from 21 universities donated blood.

NSS students from 17 universities were involved in blood collection. They organised charity shows, cultural programmes and fetes etc. to raise funds. During 1970-71, the Government celebrated the centenary of Deshbandhu Chittaranjan Das and developed the Chittaranjan Mobile Hospital scheme as a combined venture of National Service Scheme in collaboration with the Ministry of Health and Family Planning. Under this scheme the Ministry of Education allotted expenditure for 16 mobile units providing an ambulance car fitted with essential equipment for rural medical service including operational work. These units were started in selected medical colleges in each of the 16 major States. Ministry of Health and Family Planning and the State Governments were to pay for services of doctors, equipments and medicines. Some of these mobile hospitals did laudable service in the Bangladesh Refugee camps also.

Later the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare considered the involvement of students in programmes of National Service and suggested that at the following three levels — (i) change in curriculum; (ii) National Service as part-time voluntary activity by interested students and (iii) National Service on a compulsory basis. There was a need to give a new orientation to the curriculum by developing application of knowledge given in the class room. In this connection, the subject panels of the University Grants Commission were to be approached urgently and each college should be requested to identify the variety of community work in the neighbourhood. College teachers should be encouraged to

participate in programmes of community service and it should be a recognised part of their teaching load. Every NSS student should, before obtaining his first degree, make at least five persons literate. There should be also a provision for service during emergencies and specific programmes should be planned for vacations. Regarding the Committee's recommendations on compulsory National Service, the view was that it would be better to create a voluntary service in the initial stages on a stipend of Rs. 150/- to be given out of the various plan schemes connected with primary non-formal tribal education; integrated child care service, etc. Each of these schemes should adopt and use such volunteers on a stipendary basis, as mentioned.

Emphasis was also given on launching Small Savings Drive as a part of National Service activity and a note received from the Ministry of Finance was circulated to promote National Savings Movement through National Service Scheme.

The Year 1973 was a gloomy year in the field of agriculture due to failure of rain. There was widespread famine in most of the States. The situation was particularly bad in Maharashtra and Gujarat. It was decided that National Service Volunteers should participate in a combined operation with voluntary organisations and non-student youth to work in drought-prone areas for alleviating the effects of famine. In this connection, the Government of India sanctioned Rs. 1.5 crores to involve about one lakh of campers (75,000 students and 2,50,000 non-students) in a programme of youth against famine. This development-oriented educational programme called "Youth Against Famine" designed to involve university students and non-students of the same age-group was sanctioned by the Government for implementation through universities in famine-affected as also in certain non-scarcity areas. 745 camps involving about 64,000 participants were organised in different parts of the country. The campers undertook works projects selected and approved by local authority, useful for the community. The main jobs performed included digging of irrigation tanks and wells, repairs of canals, construction of contour bunds, levelling of land, afforestation, construction and widening of roads, manufacture of bricks, deepening and desilting of tanks, kitchen gardening, socio-economic survey of villages etc. The main emphasis was on projects designed to increase water supply, conserve soil, and add durable community assets like wells, ponds, canals, roads, bunds; etc.

In addition to works projects, the educational content of the work included lectures on agriculture, study of the impact of Bank Nationalisation on rural economy, land ceiling and food procurement policy, adult literacy campaign, small savings scheme, family planning, essay competitions, debates, symposia and cultural programmes.

National Service Scheme has now come to stay. Its objectives are clear-cut and specific, i.e. enriching education through community service. The potential of service is very large. A great gap exists in the field of education because of continuous drop-outs of young students in the primary stages of their education and thereby adding constantly to the number of illiterates in a fast-developing society likewise. It is felt that the first priority task of the national service should be to liquidate illiteracy by the fastest means by utilising the services of as many teachers and young students as possible and also by obtaining support of teachers' associations and voluntary organisations in the field.

In May, 1973 the Government of India addressed a letter to the University Grants Commission and also to every university requesting them to integrate NSS with the curriculum activities. The universities were enjoined to work out inter-disciplinary applied extension areas of curricular activity in such students, actively guided and supervised by faculty members. Segments of the community were to be selected and problems from the angle of each discipline and from a multi-disciplinary angle identified, and the expertise and skills assimilated in the classroom and the laboratory were brought to bear on their solution. National service thus was attempted to be a continuing intensive intra-curricular activity. The University Grants Commission appointed a Study Group to deliberate on the suggestions of the Ministry of Education to prepare a paper for consideration of the Commission.

The Bombay University took the initiative of launching two studies in connection with participation of both undergraduates and graduates in doing practical field work related to their subject studies. The undergraduates scheme was initiated by a young graduate of Bombay University, Shri S.P. Chenoy, which involved placements of selected students in a multi-purpose developmental programme of land university type for a period of four months. The national graduate scheme initiated by Shri Darshan Shankar of Bombay University involved placements of 20 selected graduate volunteers of various universities of Maharashtra and drawn from various faculties working on rural developmental projects in small groups of three to six persons on specified projects. Both these programmes were to be studied in depth by Bombay University and extension of field-oriented programmes was recommended to subject panels for their consideration and adoption.

Valuable experiences have been gained in developing the National Service Scheme on an experimental basis during the Fourth Five-Year Plan in the fields of administration, education, public cooperation and programme development. In the field of administration an attempt was made right from the beginning that N.S.S. was teachers' and students' own

programme and, therefore, only the general guidelines of educational and social welfare work were given in the form of seminar records. Teachers were to be identified by heads of institutions and they were to be assisted by a small committee of student leaders for implementing local programmes. Coordination at the university level was left in the hands of University Committee of which Vice-Chancellor was the Chairman and the Programme Coordinator of Reader's rank was acting as the Secretary of this Coordinating Committee. Out-of-pocket expenses in the form of honorarium were permitted for project officers at College levels and NSS coordinators at university levels. Their autonomous status was fully maintained and their willing cooperation was widely appreciated. A very small secretariat was sanctioned in the State Governments to ensure State cooperation and involve developmental departments giving general guidelines to local needs and programmes, issue of grants and obtaining accounts. The State Advisory Committee under the Chairmanship of the concerned Minister is now operating in almost all the States except Jammu & Kashmir. The Central Government had set up a small secretariat under the Programme Advisor with 4 Deputy Programme Advisors, 8 Senior Youth Officers and 12 Junior Youth Officers for general coordination of programme development, liaison with State Governments, universities and local bodies and for setting up camping centres for special camp projects of all-India and regional nature.

The actual implementation of the projects would present many problems, and challenge the intelligence and ingenuity of the organisers. Some of the conditions which were necessary for the success of the projects are enumerated below :

- (a) They should meet the genuine needs of the community or the particular group which they are meant to serve and their value should be apparent to the community as well as the workers.
- (b) As far as possible, the local community should be given an opportunity to participate in the planning and execution of the work.
- (c) They should provide ample opportunity for work by the unskilled participants also.
- (d) While the manual work assignments should be realistic and strenuous, they should be held within reasonable limits so as to allow adequate room for other aspects of the programme — educational and recreational. Unless the programme is well-balanced, it would not be able to sustain the interest of the kinds of youth who are to be drawn into the scheme. One of the issues raised during those days was whether it was really necessary that these educated youth, many of whom were likely to go for higher education, should do a great deal

of manual work. If this aspect was over-emphasised, it was argued, it might create distaste instead of inculcating a sense of the dignity of labour. Undoubtedly, in the Indian situation, there was a special importance and justification for educated youth taking up such work. But there was validity in the plea that this should form part of a broader concept of social service which would include a variety of activities for the common good. Medical work, provision of elementary education, teaching of simple hygiene or domestic skills to village men and women, running centres of children's and women's centres, encouraging recreational and art and craft activities and the "adoption" of particular villages for manysided service might not be manual labour, but they were certainly useful forms of social service which could be suitably included in the programme in reasonable proportion.

The leaders and the staff should be given adequate training, theoretical and practical, in the various functions which they would have to perform. The leader would have to work as a member and participant of the group, not merely issuing orders but training youth in the art of leadership, not "indulging in self-display or power seeking" but facilitating the free development of those under his supervision by delegating some of his functions as work director or educational leader to them. It would be necessary for them to have some understanding of "group dynamics" — how to conduct meetings and discussions, how to elicit active response and how to provide guidance and counselling.

Nature of the Programme

A number of programmes had been suggested for national service by the students. It was necessary to ensure that the type of social service and work experience were related to the academic and professional courses pursued by the students. The Task Force suggested a number of activities to be undertaken by students of various faculties. These were, however, illustrative and the university institutions would have to decide the particular activities to be undertaken keeping in view the needs of the area, the type of training being imparted at the institution and other relevant factors. Over the years the following programmes have been taken up as part of NSS activities, depending on the needs of the area, interest of NSS volunteers and availability of resources to the NSS Unit concerned.

The programmes under the NSS are related to various aspects of community life and therefore they are varied and allow ample scope for NSS volunteers/NSS Units to select such tasks which interest them most. Educational programmes include assistance to pupils, organisation of science clubs, book banks, exhibitions and drives to raise funds for poor

students. Adult education and non-formal education programmes are concerned with the older members of the community. Projects in the area of recreation include collection of toys and pictures for children, organisation of play groups, competitions, charity shows, hobby clubs, craft training, dramatic groups and inter-community celebrations. Programmes in the field of health cover activities like visits to hospital wards, recreational programmes for long-term patients, guidance service, donation of blood, immunisation, organisation of drug and eye banks and follow-up of discharged patients. Camp projects include building of durable community assets, improvement in school enrolment, eco-development, literacy, sanitation, holiday camps for children, family welfare, and removal of social and economic disabilities through educational activities. NSS Units have the option to choose projects, urban or rural projects for regular activities and in special camps. They may co-ordinate their work with the local community institutions and government departments. In a large number of cases NSS units have successfully conducted camps for maintenance of ancient monuments and archeological sites. A detailed list of NSS activities undertaken by different NSS units is enclosed at Appendix I.

Organisation

The NSS Advisory Committee at the central level is concerned with the formulation of policy, co-ordination of inter-state NSS programmes, liaison with State Governments, release of funds, periodic review and evaluation of programmes and the publication of NSS literature through its zonal and subordinate offices. The work of publication of NSS literature has been entrusted to the three Specialised Institutions, namely, the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, Delhi School of Social Work, and Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur and other institutions and universities depending on their capabilities.

Most of the State Governments have set up State NSS Advisory Committees with Chief Ministers or Education Ministers as Chairmen. The State NSS Advisory Committees allocate NSS strengths to the universities, release grant, effect co-ordination at the inter-departmental and inter-university levels, make periodic reviews, and prepare progress reports on NSS in the State. Some of the States have constituted Coordination or Standing Committees to attend to NSS work at regular intervals.

All the participating universities have set up University NSS Advisory Committees which issue guidelines to NSS colleges, allocate funds, approve college NSS strength and projects, establish liaison with NSS colleges, local government departments and institutions, and also with the State Government on inter-collegiate/university service projects, and

review the progress of NSS work in the university. A programme coordinator looks after the NSS work at the university level. However, no uniformity exists in the appointment of the Programme Coordinators either among the universities in the same State or in different States. Some of the universities have appointed full-time coordinators who hold degrees in social work and have got experience of youth work. Others have appointed full-time coordinators who have been ex-N.C.C. or sports officers. Most of the universities, however, have appointed part-time coordinators who are either principals of colleges, Deans of Students Welfare, Student Welfare Officers and Professors/Readers. Such appointments have been made either because of want of resources or on account of local exigencies in terms of the power structure existing in a particular University. Such diversity in the organisation at the university level has not proved salutary for NSS and sooner a uniform policy is laid down at the State level the better, because the programme coordinator is to act as an effective instrument in the implementation of programmes at the university levels.

The principals in the NSS colleges act as Chairmen of the college level NSS Committees with programme officers as its Secretaries. The college NSS committee is entrusted with the responsibility of drawing up the programme, recruitment of students, selection of village or an urban area in consultation with the programme coordinator and implement regular NSS and camp projects. The college Unit and the NSS Programme Officer thus are the nucleus of NSS operations and the programme officer is its catalytic agent. Seventeen institutions in different States have been entrusted with the responsibility of giving orientation to programme officers and student leaders. These include a number of distinguished schools of Social Work and institutions of excellence. Many of these are highly specialised institutions.

Programmes in the Fifth Plan

A small beginning for the introduction of National Service Scheme was made in the Fourth Plan. The scheme had taken root and the response to it has been favourable.

In order to direct the energies of youth into constructive channels, it had been suggested that all the students entering the university institutions should participate in the National Service Scheme. The important features of the Scheme were envisaged as follows :

- (a) It should become an integral part of the university curriculum and should count towards the student's final assessment. The period of national service should be 240 hours in each year of the degree

course. This period would, however, vary with different courses. The type of social service and work experience chosen should be related to his academic and professional courses not involving large-scale transportation and feeding of students. It was estimated that the cost of universalisation of the national service on this pattern would not be prohibitive.

- (b) Potential youth leaders — both teachers and students — might be identified and built up through camps, seminars, conferences, etc. This should cover about 10 per cent of the undergraduate students. The expertise available with the voluntary organisations and N.C.C. might also be utilised for organising these camps.
- (c) The accent in programmes of national and social service should be on the building of community assets.

The Deshmukh Committee had suggested that students should render nine months of national service compulsorily before they entered the university. The other view was that students might be allowed the first two years as a period of uninterrupted study and they should then be given a longer vacation during which national service could be organised.

The task force had considered the various alternatives. It was, however, of the view that the best way was that students should undertake national service while on the rolls of the university institutions. For this purpose, national service should become an integral part of the university curriculum. This would involve restructuring of time tables of indoor studies and outdoor work. Indoor studies might be carried out from May to November and outdoor camps for social work, sports coaching, etc. be carried out from December to April each year. There should, however, be no rigidity about the period of the year when the National Service Scheme was organised. It should be left to the individual university to organise the scheme in a manner suiting the local situation.

Involvement of NSS in Integrated Rural Development Programme

In the Sixth Five-Year Plan, programmes for alleviation of rural poverty have been accorded very high priority. The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is one of the major instruments for raising the income levels of some of the poorest segments of the rural population. The objective of the IRD Programme is to provide assistance to identified families of a target group for raising their incomes to a level well above the poverty line. The target group consists of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, rural artisans and craftsmen, agricultural

labourers, marginal farmers, small farmers and others who are now living below the poverty line. The IRD Programme is intended to provide such families assistance in the form of subsidies and loans to take up economic activities which would generate substantial increment incomes.

The following activities can be thought of for involving the student volunteers in this regard :

- (i) Preparation of inventory of resources available in an area and conduct of household survey. It is, however, feared by some that it would not be possible for the student volunteers to devote their full attention to this type of work on the usual working days and they would be available only during vacations. This fear can be met with by adopting a suitable strategy.
- (ii) Playing the role of liaison between the weaker sections of the community and Block administration in respect of implementation of the IRD Programme.
- (iii) Participation in follow-up activities taken up by the beneficiaries for implementation under IRD. If a list of beneficiaries who are assisted under the programme can be provided to the principals of the respective colleges by the Blocks, the student volunteers could very well approach the beneficiaries and render necessary assistance and also do the feedback in respect of their activities to the Blocks. This will help in the follow-up of the Programme as well as in the successful implementation of the schemes.

One of the assets of the NSS is that it is a countrywide programme. Its other strong point is that it comprises of educated young persons, a quality lacking in the rural areas. It is a corruption-free, honest force with a measure of idealism (qualities not sufficiently present in the rural development administrative machinery). Its major limitation is that the students and teachers can spare only a limited period out of the academic year for this (rural development) extracurricular activity.

One of the biggest gaps in the present rural development arrangements is what may be called the information gap. The poor often lack information about their basic rights. They are not aware of the essential social legislation (Bonded Labour Abolition Act; Debt Redemption Act, Land Ceilings Act; Untouchability Offence Act; Panchayat Act, etc.). At present no one is providing "legal literacy".

The Governmental arrangements for identifying the poorest family household amount to almost exclusive reliance on the village level worker. This lends itself to corruption and to delivering benefits to those otherwise not qualified.

In view of the above, it appears reasonable that instead of squandering away NSS power by undertaking activities of marginal benefits, the NSS Force is deployed on a countrywide basis for filling the information gap. The Law Faculties and relevant Central Ministries and State Departments (on programmes of poverty alleviation) should provide full details of the programmes to those in the universities and colleges (teachers) who are in-charge of the NSS Programme. The latter in turn should hold orientation courses for the students in their charge before they are sent out for field work. The students must be provided with copies of literature about the programmes for wider distribution in the areas of their field work. The students' first role under NSS is to light the lamp of knowledge through meetings, discussions, training camps for the village population and about their rights and opportunities.

Their second role should be to prepare a village-wise list of the poorest households (just like the electoral rolls) and then hold camps and meetings of at least one man from each of these households to explain to them the details of the poverty alleviation programme. The list prepared by NSS should be displayed at a public place in the village and copies provided to the Block Development organisations.

The third NSS task should be to provide education to the intended beneficiaries not only about their rights but also their role and obligations in honest use and fulfilment of the conditions of assistance provided to them. It has also to be explained to them that with the best of intentions the Government cannot provide assistance to all the identified beneficiaries at the same time. The activity has, therefore, to be necessarily phased. If phasing is left to the administrative machinery, it is likely to use arbitrary methods and/or indulge in corruption. But if in a village, say, 50 beneficiaries have been identified by the NSS force, they can be helped to form their own committee which can each year select by drawing of lots or any other preferred method, such number of families out of the identified list as can be accommodated within the budgetary provisions available that year. In short, the choice of beneficiaries instead of being made by the administrative machinery must be made by the community itself. This requires an educational campaign for preparing the community to take initiative and organise itself for the purpose. The NSS can conduct this campaign far better than any other agency. NSS can also help them in forming their committees, if they do not evolve any formal structured organisation.

Adult Education

The Adult Education Programme undertaken as a part of the 20-Point Programme covering 1150 million persons in the age-group 15-35 in seven years envisages participation of student youth. NSS being

one of the major student youth programmes cannot remain aloof. It should perform a positive role in this important programme. In fact, adult education should be a priority programme under NSS to be taken up by a progressively increasing number of students.

(a) Actual organisation of adult education programmes, e.g., integrated development services with adult education, including literacy as an indispensable component, binary instruction for literacy, literacy for manual urban workers etc.

(b) Programme activities for creation of environment for adult education, creation of motivation for learners, supplementary instructions, follow up and post-literacy activities like managing libraries (including mobile libraries), supplementary readers, etc.

The activities at (b) should be on par with other NSS activities and may not require extra efforts over and above 120 hours. All persons undertaking programmes under (a) above would be required to put in about 240 hours in one year. A start could be made for the programme during vacations to enable maximum concentrated efforts in the first lap. Ordinarily, the instructional arrangements may be provided by a unit of two students. Each student will have to be given proper orientation training. It is essential that there is rigorous supervision and evaluation. A student who completes 240 hours of work in adult education in one year should be given a certificate to this effect and he should also be deemed to have completed his NSS work of two years. Every NSS student desirous of taking up this programme for more than one year should be enabled to do so.

The main objectives of the programme of adult education are :

- (a) to enable universities/colleges to become aware of their social responsibility and bring them and the community closer;
- (b) to provide to teachers and students opportunities for services leading to a learning experience not otherwise provided within the walls of the campus;
- (c) to educate the community and to involve it meaningfully in national development — deriving benefits of the resources and energy of the teachers, students and the campus' itself.

Monitoring

In any educational programme, including NSS, where the implementation is at the level of individual colleges, an effective monitoring is necessary. Undoubtedly, it involves difficulties, nonetheless there is need for devising a suitable mechanism so that the programme can be

monitored as it progresses. For this purpose, it would be useful to prescribe periodical reports to be submitted by the colleges and the universities.

Evaluation

In the earlier years NSS Special Camping Programme was evaluated each year by an independent institution designated for the purpose, beginning with "Youth Against Famine" (1973-74), followed by "Youth Against Dirt and Disease" (1974-75) and "Youth for Tree Plantation" (1975-76). In 1977-78 for the first time evaluation of special camping programme as well as regular activities was entrusted on a zonal basis to four distinguished institutions of national standing. In 1979-80 guidelines were drawn for self-evaluation of NSS activities by the universities/colleges concerned. Evaluation of NSS programmes on a continuing basis is essential for maintaining and improving the quality of work.

Research

It is of crucial significance that there is constant and continuing effort at introducing innovations, experimentation and research. It would be desirable to identify research projects for each year and entrust such research projects to a particular university or institution or individual researcher on a contract basis.

Incentives

The question of giving weightage, other things being equal, to NSS students who have been given certificates for work in NSS, in matters of employment, in appropriate types of departments, may be taken up with the Department of Personnel and in case they agree, the concerned Central Government Departments and the State Governments and the public undertakings can be addressed in the matter accordingly. Pending a decision in this regard, the Union Public Service Commissions and the State Public Service Commissions may be requested to include in various application forms for employment a column "Did you participate in the National Service Scheme? If so, give details of your achievements".

Need For A Review

NSS has grown enormously during the last 14 years. In many parts of the country NSS volunteers (teachers and students) have given a good account of themselves. Although it cannot be denied that the programme suffers from several weaknesses, it has succeeded in identifying a very large number of teachers and students of universities and colleges (in thousands) who are highly motivated and committed to work for the programme.

However, there are certain issues relating to NSS which need to be examined afresh for making the programme more effective, some of which are stated below :

- (i) What should be the teacher-students ratio in an NSS Unit? The present ratio of one teacher to 100 students is considered to be far too inadequate;
- (ii) What should be the pattern of financial assistance for running the programme? Some eleven years ago it was decided to provide funds at the rate of Rs. 60/- per volunteer per annum for regular activities and Rs. 60 per volunteer for special camping programme (Rs. 6 per day per volunteer for a 10-day camp). Since then the price level has risen considerably and NSS units are finding it extremely difficult to manage their affairs within the funds provided for the purpose;
- (iii) What incentives should be provided to teachers and students who do good work over an extended period of time? It is necessary that some concrete benefit (not necessarily in terms of money) should accrue to those who do committed social work;
- (iv) What should be the rate of out-of-pocket allowance (honorarium) to teachers? At present, they are paid Rs. 75/- per month. This rate was fixed some 10 years ago. Either it should be scrapped altogether or it should be increased suitably keeping in view the rise in the price levels;
- (v) Providing adequate field staff for supervising and overseeing NSS programmes to Zonal/Regional Centres;
- (vi) Strengthening training programme for NSS teachers more effectively and encouraging researches and studies on subjects relating to NSS and, generally to strengthen the resource base in each State for helping and guiding NSS activities;
- (vii) Providing effective linkages between NSS activities and the curriculum. Efforts made by UGC and the universities in the matter have not been adequate.

It may be stated that there is no youth organisation in the country which has the potential of discharging functions which are entrusted to NSS. It is now becoming more and more popular with the students. It has the potential of becoming an effective instrument of social change and educational reform provided adequate efforts are made and necessary support is provided.

Conclusion

From the above review one can conclude that achievements of the NSS have been quite encouraging in a short span of fourteen years. And though the Scheme has not worked miracles, it has undoubtedly fostered a new sense of discipline and social responsibility among the participant youth. NSS volunteers may involve themselves in programmes related to urgent national issues like population education, eco-development, adult education, rural development, health, nutrition and child care, and development of women. The present historical moment augurs well for the youth and it is with their dedication, hard work, imagination and constructive leadership that they can lend a helping hand to the nation in speedily ushering in an era of social and economic equality and justice. NSS programme should be reviewed with the object of making it more effective in its operation.

APPENDIX A

A List of Suggested Programmes

Some of the broad areas and activities which form part of the programme of rural reconstruction under NSS, including the Special Programme, are as follows :

I. Land Reforms

- (a) Survey, monitoring, and evaluation of land reforms.
- (b) Assistance in preparation of village land records.
- (c) Identification and demarcation of village common and forest lands.
- (d) Explaining and teaching improved agricultural practices to those who have recently been allotted land.
- (e) Relief to the erstwhile bonded worker.
- (f) Legal aid to the rural poor.
- (g) Allotment of House-sites to persons belonging to Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes.

II. Non-Formal Education and Recreation

- (a) Educational Survey for literacy and education in the adopted villages.
- (b) Initiating literacy programme — to be continued with indigenous resources.
- (c) Encouraging discussions on eradication of dowry, and other social evils like casteism, communalism, regionalism, corruption, adulteration, hoarding, profiteering, etc.
- (d) Use of mass media for instruction and recreation.
- (e) Rural libraries.
- (f) Rural and indigenous sports.
- (g) Organisation of Youth Clubs.

III. Better Environment

- (a) Planning better environment in the villages.
- (b) Environmental sanitation and disposal of garbage—composting.
- (c) Construction of roads, village streets.
- (d) Provision of safe drinking water-supply.
- (e) Rodent control and pest management.
- (f) Popularisation and construction of Gobar Gas plants.
- (g) Construction of houses in a planned manner — use of local material to keep costs low.

IV. Afforestation and Tree Plantation

- (a) Prevention of soil erosion.
- (b) Soil conservation works.
- (c) Creation of tree consciousness among the community.
- (d) Establishment and nurturing of nurseries.
- (e) Plantation of trees.
- (f) Weed Control.
- (g) Preservation and upkeep of trees.

V. Economic Development

- (a) Work with Cooperative Societies in villages so as to streamline their functioning and making them effective for the rural poor.
- (b) Assistance to the cooperative societies in processing their proposals for obtaining bank loans.
- (c) Soil testing and soil health-care.
- (d) Assistance in the repair of agricultural machinery.

VI. Institutional Projects

- (i) Work with welfare agencies like organisations of children welfare, organisations for women welfare, organisations for handicapped, cheshire homes, institutions for physically handicapped and mentally retarded.
- (ii) Work in hospitals, for example, serving as ward-visitors to cheer the patients, help the patients to be more comfortable, recreational programmes for the patients, providing occupational or hobby activities to long-term patients, outdoor-patients guidance service including guiding visitors in hospital procedures, letter writing and reading for general patients, follow up of patients discharged from hospitals through visits to their homes and places of work, assistance in running of dispensaries etc.

VII. Urban Programmes

- (1) NSS activities in urban areas which have been mainly directed towards slum dwellers included :
 - (i) Mass immunisation
 - (ii) Sanitation
 - (iii) Adult Education
 - (iv) Coaching classes for the children
 - (v) Medical check-up of the children
 - (vi) Conducting surveys
 - (vii) Organising blood donation campaigns
 - (viii) Recreational programmes for the children.

- (2) Special camps have been held under the theme of 'Youth for Rural Reconstruction' covering activities in diverse fields like non-formal education and recreation, better environment, afforestation and tree plantation, economic development, land reforms, family and child care etc.

- (a) Integrated Child Development Programme
- (b) Nutrition and Child-care
- (c) Mass immunisation
- (d) Primary health care work.

VIII. Other Programmes under NSS

Besides the programmes enumerated under the programme of Youth for Rural Reconstruction, the following are the other major programmes on which NSS students have continued to be deployed :

(i) Emergency Relief Work

Assistance to the local authorities in relief and rehabilitation work in the wake of natural calamities like cyclones, floods, earthquakes, etc. The type of work done has been :

- (i) Assistance to the authorities in distribution of rations, medicines, clothes, etc.
- (ii) Assistance to the health authorities in inoculation and immunisation, supply of medicines, etc.
- (iii) Actual assistance to local people in reconstruction of their huts, cleaning of wells, building of roads etc.
- (iv) Collection of donations and clothes and sending the same to the affected areas.
- (v) Assistance to local authorities in actual relief and rescue work.

IX. Work around Archaeological Monuments

Preservation and upkeep of monuments was taken up as part of programme of special Camping Programme. The major activities undertaken were :

- (i) Cleaning of the walls and surroundings of the monuments.
- (ii) Removing of bushes and over-growth.
- (iii) Assistance to the archaeological authorities in laying gardens, parks, dust bins at proper places, etc.
- (iv) Distribution of pamphlets and other material to the public visiting the monuments.
- (v) Other activities as per plan prepared by local archaeological authorities.

Subject Index

- Ad hoc Enquiry Committee on games and sports 276
recommendations 276-278
- Adult Education 118, 108, 477, 97, 99, 102 (also see Social Education)
— aim 99, Adult education in India-a survey 102, Fifth National Conference of 99,
objectives 478, 20-Point Programme 477.
- Adult Literacy and Intergrated Rural Development 121
- Adult Literacy 118-119
— and social education 113, centres 108
- Agriculture Research Review 316
- Agriculture Universities
— Case study 321, 314, in India 314-333, objectives of case study 321,
results 324, suggestions 325
- All-India Council for Technical Education 207
- Apprenticeship Act 196, 199
- Arya Samaj 85, 86, 83
- Basic Education 152, 77, 83, 86, 87, 88, 90, 91, 92, 93, 95, 347, 351
- Bengal Report 18
- Bombay Presidency 3, 53
- Brahma Samaj 6
- British Government 4, 5, 6, 11, 51, 81, 83, 84, 189
- Calcutta University Commission 232, 414, 379
- Capitalism 137
- Catalysts of economic growth 196
- CCC 465
- Central Advisory Board of Education 444, 231, 324, 239, 247, 261, 253, 417
- Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation 239-240
— recommendations 239
- Central Training Institute for Women instructors 204
- Child marriage 9, 16, 43
- Co-education 20-24, 29, 41, 42, 159
- Committee on Higher Education for rural areas 154
— recommendations 155
- Community Centres 107, 108
— activities of 107
- Community development
— aspect of 97-133, aim 97, 101, 113
- Community development programme 133, 97, 98, 166
- Concessions and incentives 68-74
- Continuing education 120
- Correspondence courses 108
- Curricular changes
- Deccan Education Society 47
- Deshmukh Committee 13, 15, 22, 23, 464, 465
- Development programmes 102, 104
- Dev Samaj 6
- Directorate of Vocational Education Karnataka 400

Economic Development 196

Economic Policy 19

Education 149

- adult education 118, 108, 477, 97, 99, 101, 102 (also see social education), objectives 478, programmes 104, 143, fifth national conference of 99, aim 99, 20-point programme 477, adult education in India—a survey 102
 - agents of 83,
 - aim 110
 - basic education 152, 77, 83, 86, 87, 88, 90, 91, 92, 93, 95, 347, 351
 - co-education 20-24, 29, 41, 42, 48, 159.
 - elementary education 84, 110-111, enrolment of girls 111, role of panchayat raj in 113-115 wastage in 110 (also see Wastage and Stagnation 112-113)
 - farmers 121-122
 - formal system of 356
 - functions 110
 - implementation of + 2 level education in Karnatakas 399-404, in Maharashtra 405, comments on introduction of + 2 level in Maharashtra 412
 - mass education 99, movement 135
 - non-formal education 453, 120, 144, programme for adults 104, programmes 101, shortcomings 127
 - physical education 212, in India 212-306, issues of 418, prior to 1882 213-214, between 1882-1912 214-216, between 1912-1937 216-226, special committees 221-223, in primary and secondary schools 228-229, in colleges 229, in developing countries 259, during post independence period 261, present status 262-263, development of in Maharashtra 263-267, seminars on 272-273, major recommendations 273-276
 - physical education and sports for non-school going youths 217, scheme for compulsory physical education in schools 280, prospects of physical education in India 294, list of colleges and schools for the training of teachers of physical education 307, 311
 - pre-service 374
 - primary education 104, 78, 91
 - progress 45
 - provision in the Five Year Plans 110
 - role 67, 75, 76, 77
 - secondary education 111-112, enrolment 111
 - social education 97, 115, 130, expenditure 110, approaches 123, eleventh national seminar on social education 123, impact of 127-129, implementation of in India 104, movement 117, organisers 107, programmes of 117-118, 90, 102, 105, 108, rural social education 116
 - teachers education, state board of 360, functions and responsibilities 360, committee on teachers education in Maharashtra 360
 - technical education 187, 188, development in India 187-211, history 192, All India Council for 193, structure and pattern 197-198, four tiers of 197, planning and development 205-207
 - tribal education 77, 79, 83, 84, 86, 91, 95, enrolment of tribal students 81, in Gujarat 74-96.
 - Women's Education 42, 43, 55, 122, in India 3-37, agents 5, growth and expansion 9-13, 11, 28, objectives 3, 8, national council for 7, national committee on 7, statistics 9, 17
 - university education 26, Indian 153
 - universal primary education, 11, 354
- Education Commission 13, 24, 27, 37, 45, 81, 83, 282, 378
- recommendations 383-385 (also see Kothari Commission)
 - report on 118

- Education Commission and after 443
- Educational institutions 103
- Education Ministers' Conference 435, 456
- Educational pattern in India 415, merits and demerits 415
- Educational Plans 103
- Education Policy 45, educational Policy 5 (also see State Policy of Education) and National Policy 416
- Education Programmes
 - implementation of 426, evaluation 479, incentives 479, monitoring of 478, need for a review in 479
- Educational reforms 77, 72, 66, 98, 135, 318, 319, 320, 322, 323, 335, 336
 - objectives of 135, definitions 337, in India 334
 - teachers education in Maharashtra 334-375, in primary teacher education 340-362, in secondary education 362-368, in secondary training colleges 368-369.
- Educated unemployment 191
- Elementary Education 84, 110, 111, wastage in 111 (also see Wastage and Stagnation 112-113), enrolment of girls 111, role of panchayat raj in 113-115
- Elphinstone Institute 54,
- Equalisation of educational opportunities 112
- Equality 31, 54, of opportunities 8, co-efficient of 71, goal of 74
- Farmers Education 121-122, Aims 121, programme of farmers education and functional literacy 121, 104
- Female education 45
 - principles of 46
- Female literacy rate 12
- Feminist movement 8, 49
- Five Year Plans and Physical Education 267-269
- Formal education 143, 98, 99
- Formal and non-formal education 334
- Fourth Five Year Plan 104
- Fundamental education 101
- Gandhian idology 84, 89
- Gandhian Workers 88
- Girls Education 2, 9, 21
 - wastage in 3, enrolment of girls 12, 13, 14, 17, 21, 22, 32, 36
 - institution of girls 11, 31, rate of retention 14, 32
- Gokak Committee Report 429
- Gymnasia 230
- Hartog Ancillary Committee 32, 191, 343
- Hartog Commission 42, 65
- Health Education 122-123
- Higher Education 86
- Hindu associations 7
- Hindu law of marriage, divorce and inheritance 54
- Hindu widows Home 50
- Hunters Commission 45, 189
- Identity retention
 - a case study of SNDT Women's University 40-66
- Implementation of + 2 level in Karnataka 399-404 in Maharashtra 405, comments on introduction of + 2 in Maharashtra 412
- Indian Statutory Commission 42
- Indian elite 152
- Industrial development 192, 194

- Industrial Revolution 187-208
- Industrialization 137
- Introduction of + 2 in Gujarat
- Involvement of NSS in integrated rural development programme 475
 - activities 476
- Iswarbhair Patel Review Committee 288, 422
 - appointment of 289, suggested programmes 289
- I.I.T. 199
- I.T.I. 199
- Janaki Devi Degree College 109
- Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad (KSSP) 135, 151
 - concept of 136, members of 141, activities of non-formal deucation of KSSP 141, assessment about 151
- Khadi movement 86
- Kothari Commission 37, 92, 282, 285, 397, 356
 - features of 283, recommendations on school curriculum 283, on physical education 284-285
- Kunzru Committee 270
- Labour Intensive Technology 209
- Lakshmibai National College of Physical Education 257
- Language formula 430
- Literacy
 - programmes 18, incidence of 119, in India 128, formal literacy rate 12, adult 99, 103
- Lok Bharati 157,
 - development and growth 157, 167, objectives 158, features of 158-160, institution 160-165, functions 165-167
- Mahila Maha Vidyalayas 53
- Mahila Vidyalayas 47
- Manpower needs 207
- Massachusetts Institute of Technology 193
- Mass Education 99
 - movement 135
- Maulana Abul Kalam Azad Trophy 245
- Ministry of Education 7, 37, 96, 109, 102, 103, 105
- Mohammadia Educational Association 7
- Montagu-Chelmsford reforms 5
- More Committee 346
 - recommendation 346
- Mudaliar Commission on Secondary Education 245
 - recommendations 246, 247, 382, 383, 385, report 395
- Naik Committee's Report 338, 354
- National advisory organisation 193
- National Coaching Schemes of Sports 269-170
- National development programmes 10
- National discipline scheme 242-243
- National fundamental education centre 105
- National plan of physical education and recreation 240, 242
 - aim and objectives 240
- National ploicy on education 444, 184, 286, 390, 413, 416
- National service volunteers 469
- National sports ploicy 295

- NCC 466, 454, 235-237
 - aims 236
- NCERT Curriculum in physical education 286-288
- Netaji Subhash National institute of sports 260
- New Syllabi Committee 396
- Non-formal education 453, 120, 144
 - shortcomings 127, programme for 104, programmes 452
- NSS 104, 463, 465, 468, 470, 469, 450, 455
 - as voluntary activity 461, assignments 463, nature 472, guiding principles 457
- Observations on study of Junior Colleges in Marathwada 411
 - recommendations 411
- Open university 65
 - occupational education 189
- Panandikar Committee 353
- Pattern of Education 10+2+3 203, 206, 296, 397, 324, 377 (also see structure of education)
 - objectives 386-387, 416, features 387-388, misconceptions 389, 390, at national level 414-419, issues of 418, statewide status 418, 422-423
- Physical education 212
 - in India 212-306, in British period 212-213, prior to 1882 213-214, between 1882-1912 214-216, between 1912 and 1937 216-226, special committees 221-223 in primary and secondary schools 228-229, in colleges 229, in developing countries 259, during post independence period 261, present status 262-263, development of in Maharashtra 263-267, seminars on 272-273 major recommendations 273-276
- Physical education and sports for non-school going youths 217
 - scheme for compulsory physical education in schools 280, prospects of physical education in India 294, list of colleges and schools for training of teachers of Physical Education 307, 311
- Planning Commission 99, 100
- Primary Education 104, 78, 91
- Purdah 4, 9, 16, 19, 21, 29
- Radha Krishnan Commission 464, 195, 383, 385
 - on university education 237-239, recommendations 238
- Reforms 89
 - goals 89, in education 192, 209, 211 in India 334, reforming the education at school level 153, reform activities 80-81
- Reforms
 - educational reforms 335, 356, 427-428, in primary teachers education 340-362, in teacher education 334-374
- Regional imbalances 15, 37
- Reports of SBIE meetings 338
- Revolutions 355
 - 'Green' or 'white' 355
- Rewakantha 78, 83, 95
- Rural Institutes 155, 156, 175, 184
 - during 1953-83 175-276, autonomy 177 innovations 177-278, evaluation of 179-81 committee to review the programme of 179, recommendations 181 objectives of 156, report 156
- Rural science forums 239
- Rural university 315
- Rural women 12
- Sabarkantha 79
- Sargent report 7, 10, 27, 34, 414
 - Sargent Plan 233, 234 Sargent Commission 380
- Sarkar Committee 193, 196

- Sati 9, 44
- Scheduled Castes 68, 119, 104
 - schemes 69, 73, scholarships 68, 70, enrolment 70, educational development 73, 74, educational planning 74
- Scheduled Tribes 119, 104
 - enrolment 87, 94
- Scheme of National Service
 - objectives 457, compulsion 458, duration 458, content 459, organisational set up 460, finance 461, recommendations of Deshmukh Committee 457
- School games federation in India 244-245
- Scientific attitude 140
 - scientific outlook 146
- Scientific Manpower Committee 195, 196
- Secondary Education 111-112
 - enrolment 111
- Secondary Education Commission 22, 203, 381
- Seva Sadan 44
- Sevasadan society 6
- Sharada Act 52
- Sharada Sadan 44
- Shree Mouni Vidyapeeth 167
 - development and growth 167-175, origin 167, 168, objectives 166, special features 169, institutions 170, functions 173-75
- Silent Valley Project 140, 145, 148, 147
- Sixth Plan 104
- SNDT Womens University (see Women's university)
- Social Change 31, 83, 102
- Social Consciousness 104
- Social Education 97, 115, 130
 - expenditure 110, organisers 107, 113, movement 117, programmes of 117-118, 90, 102, 105, 108, implementation in India 104, approaches 123, impact of 127, 129
- Social scientists 75
- Social structure 75
- Social reforms 4, 31, 42
 - social reformism 84
- Social reformers 6, 9, 20, 21, 25, 42, 43, 44, 54
- Social service 462
 - programmes 464
- Socio-economic changes 104
- Standing Committee of Inter University Board 467
- State Education Ministers Conference 466
- State Education Policy 92-93 (also see State Policy of Education)
- State Policy of Education — type of institutions 90
- State reorganisation act 67
- Structural changes 188
- Structure of education 10 + 2 + 3 56, 62 (also see pattern of education)
- Students literacy and scientific society 44
- Tarachand Committee on Secondary Education in India 235
 - suggestions 235, recommendations 235
- Teachers Education
 - state board of 360, functions and responsibilities 360 committee on teachers' education in Maharashtra 360
- Technical education 187, 188
 - development in India 187-211, history 192, All-India Council for 193,, structure and pattern 197-198, Four tiers of 197, planning and development of 205-207
- Technical Institute VJTI 190

- Technical Institutes 196
 - Technical teachers 204
- Technical manpower 195
- Technicians 199-202
- Third All India Educational Survey 291
- Thomas Committee 343
- Tribals Bheels 78, 79, 83
 - dangis 79
- Tribal Education 77, 79, 83, 84, 86, 91, 95
 - enrolment of tribal students 81, in Gujarat 74-96
- Tribal literacy 91, 93,
- Tribal women 8
- Training institute for physical education 224
- Training teachers for physical education 224-226

- UGC 467, 4, 470
- Union Ministry of Education 104
- University education 26
 - Indian 153
- University education commission 315, 380
- University graduates 191
- University for women 42
- Universal Primary Education 11, 354
- Urs Committee Report 404

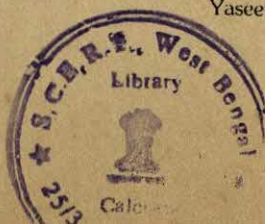
- Vanita Ashram 44, 53
- Vocational Curricular and Instruction material 432
- Vocational education 383, 385
- Vocational surveys 431
 - position of Vocational Surveys in States/Union Territories 431
- Vocationalisation 422,
 - of plus two 430, progress of 434, in diff. states and U/t 435, of higher education in T.N. 435, of education at + 2 stage 409
- Vocational training 127, 102
- Voluntary organisation 103, 104, 108, 107, 105

- Widows education 44, 47
- Widow remarriage 9, 44, 47
- Woods Despatch 9, 44, 189
- Women
 - status 43, 44, 64, 61, position 4, 5, 11, 31, 42, 43, role 59
- Women's education 42, 43, 52, 122
 - in India 3-37, agents 5, growth and expansion 9-13, 11, 28, objectives 3, 8, national council for 7, national committee on 7, statistics 9, 17
- Women's university 41, 47, 48, 59
 - objectives 50, aims 64, recognition 52, 54, degrees conferred 52, 53, evaluation 59-62, role 57, growth of the university 51-57
- Work camp programmes 466

Name Index

- Abbot, 191, 192
 Agrawal, S., 184
 Anderson, J., 18, 187
 Anjaria, H.G., 54
 Annigali, Sitabai, 54
 Bakht, Sikander, 257
 Bapat, B.D., 213
 Barve, J.D., 247
 Bernal, J.D., 139
 Besant, Annie, 5, 6
 Bethune, 6, 20
 Bhagawat, S.R., 221
 Bajpai, Girija Shankar, 232, 233
 Bhale, N.L., 314
 Bhandarkar, R.G., 50, 215
 Bhansali, Kamalini, 41
 Bhatnagar, Shanti Swaroop, 195
 Bhatt, Nanabhai, 157, 175
 Bhonsale, K., 268
 Bhulabhai, 83
 Billington, 37
 Bimsen, 187
 Biswas, A., 184
 Buchanan, J., 30
 Buch, M.B., 152, 184
 Buch, N.P., 184
 Carpenter, Mary, 6, 214
 Chand, Dhyan, 269
 Chandran, H.H., 184
 Chapman, 37
 Chenoy, S.P., 470
 Chickermane, D.V., 184
 Chiplunkar, 25, 37
 Choksi, 13, 25
 Coomps, Philip H., 98
 Cousins, Margaret, 6, 37
 Curzon, 217
 Dabholkar, 406
 Dalal, Ardeshir, 192, 211
 Dame, Kathleen Lonsdale, 65
 Damle, Shivram Pant, 221
 Damodaran, G.R., 201
 Das, Bhagwan 37
 Dasgupta, 37
 Dave, Jugatram, 96, 88, 93
 Dayanand Saraswati, 6
 Deodhar, G.K., 44
 Desai, I.P., 77, 95, (R)
 Desai, Ishwarlal, 96 (R)
 Desai, Neera, 41
 Deshbandhu, Chitaranjan Das, 215
 Deshmukh, Durgabai, 7
 Dhabe, S.W., 290
 Dhar, 134 (R)
 Dhru, 54
 Dugall, M.C., 16, 37
 Doren, 25
 Dube, 8
 Elphinstone, Mount Stuart, 65
 Ferries, F.W., 86
 Gajjar Naniben, 44
 Gandhi, M.K., 5, 6, 11, 52, 53, 84, 85, 89, 99,
 141, 152, 157, 450
 Gheewala, C.L., 54, 55
 Glose, 31
 Gloshe, 37
 Gogate, S.B., 377
 Gokhale, G.K., 43
 Guha, Ramachandra, 96 (R)
 Hanswirth, 17, 18, 25, 37
 Hartog, 5
 Hare David, 6
 Hassan Nural, 64, 388, 444
 Henry, Gray, 217
 Howard, Arther W., 219
 Hussain, Ashfaq, 257
 Ishwar Chandra, 6, 20
 Jain, S.P., 97, 133, (R)
 Joseph, P.M., 258, 268
 Joshi, K.L., 54
 Joshi, V.M., 54
 Joshi, Vidyut, 96 (R)
 Kaliappa, K.M., 257
 Kamat, A.R., 76, 95 (R)
 Karamchand, Maganlal, 44
 Karandikar, Suman P., 334
 Karuna Ahmed, 3, 76, 77, 95, (R)
 Karve, Maharshi, 42, 43, 44, 46, 47, 490, 51, 53,
 54, 60
 Kaur, Rajkumari Amrit, 269
 Kavalayananda, 221
 Kher, B.G., 54, 248
 Kipling, Rudyard, 303
 Kothari, D.S., 286, 382
 Kripal P.N., 257
 Kunzru, H.N., 278, 285

- Lagu, R.K., 54
 Madan, 126, 127
 Madan, G.R., 134 (R)
 Maharani of Baroda, 37
 Mahesh Chandra, 134 (R)
 Malabari, Behramji, 43
 Mandal, H.V.P., 221, 226
 Manikji, Dinsha, 215
 Manikrao, 220, 221
 Mathur, J.S., 133 (R)
 Mayaram, 81
 McConnel, John, W, 99
 Mehrotra, S.N., 133 (R)
 Mehta, Hansa, 26
 Mehta, Sharda, 53, 54
 Menon, Laxmi, 64
 Meyhew, 13, 16, 25
 Mhaskar, K.S., 221
 Mies, 8, 31
 Mirdha, Ram Niwas, 257
 Misra, 129, 134 (R)
 Montagu, 5
 Morris, W.J., 79
 Mudaliar, Laxmanswami, 246, 381
 Munshi, K.K., 220
 Murdoch, 37
 Nag, 31
 Naik, J.P., 95, 96 (R), 98, 99, 168, 176, 433, 444
 Namjoshi, 65 (R)
 Nanavaty, M.C., 100
 Natarajan, K., 42
 Natisen, 43
 Natu, M.N., 221
 Nayak, R.K., 100
 Nehru, 37
 Neohren, A.G., 218, 219
 Panandikar, 41, 352
 Pandit Madanmohan Malaviya, 190
 Pandita Ramabai, 44
 Pandit, S.N., 42
 Pandit, Y.S., 54
 Parameswaran, M.P., 135
 Paranjpe, 50
 Parkar, 315
 Patel, Tara, 33 (R)
 Pathak, Ramanarayan, 54
 Patton, 6
 Phatak, N.R., 54
 Pratt, Henrey, 133 (R)
 Phule, Mahatma, 6, 43, 44
 Purani, Chotubhai, 221
 Puranik, W.R., 248
 Radakrishnan, S., 153, 257, 315, 380
 Rajgopal, M.V., 393
 Ralph, W., 316
 Ramabai, 37
 Raman, C.V., 141
 Ranade, 215
 Ranade, M.G., 6, 43
 Randhawa, M.S., 316
 Reddy, Ishwar, 393
 Roy, Raja Ram Mohan, 6, 20
 Saiyidain, K.G., 461, 464, 465
 Saini Shivkumar, 96 (R)
 Sam Higginbottom, 191
 Sampurnanand, 248
 Sandesara, J.C., 63
 Sapra, C.L., 133 (R)
 Seeta, 252
 Sen., 13
 Sen, Hannah 26
 Sen, Keshab Chandra, 6
 Sen, T 467
 Shah, L.R., 450
 Shaikh, A.V., 405
 Shankar, Darshan, 470
 Sharma, 126, 134 (R)
 Sharma, R.C., 67, 133, (R)
 Shashi 8
 Shrimati, K.L., 251, 252, 260, 276
 Shukla, V.C., 257
 Siddiqui, A., 191
 Singh, Amrik, 257
 Singh, Sardar Baldev, 249
 Singh, Virendra, 250
 Singhal, R.P., 413, (R)
 Talim, Bhanu, 221
 Talwar, A.S., 291
 Tarachand, 191
 Thakarsey, Pramila, 51, 56
 Thakarsey, S.N.D., 41
 Thakarsey, Vithaldas, 51, 56
 Thomas, 343
 Trivedi, Y, 184 (R)
 Vaidya, Ambadaspant, 221
 Vaidya Anant Krishna, 221
 Vivekanand, 6
 Wakharkar, D.G., 272
 Weber, Fred, 218, 219
 Wood, 9, 44, 191, 192
 Wren, P.C., 217
 Yaseen, 37



ABOUT THE BOOK

The objective of the present series of Studies of Educational Reform in India is to delineate an analytical picture of the conception of a given educational reform, its concretization for action, its implementation, functioning and finally its culmination into either its success or failure, leading to the birth of another reform in some instances. The reforms introduced during the period from 1921 (i.e. after the introduction of Dyarchy) to 1980, and touching almost all the major aspects of education are subjected to incisive analysis in these studies. Basic questions are raised here about the potential of education as a change agent, the interdependence of the socio-economic structure and the reform process and the inevitable complementarity of the conflict and continuity perceptions about educational change.

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